TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD

EDUCATION AND POLITICS IN THE SOVIET UNION
John L. Childs 351

A COLOMBIAN LESSON IN COMPARATIVE METHOD
George Z. F. Bereday 355

A MISSISSIPPI WORKSHOP TOO IS PEOPLE
Jane Ellen McAllister 364

RESEARCH IN NURSING IN THE UNITED STATES
Helen Bunge 371

LITERATURE AS AN AID TO SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT
Nick Aaron Ford 377

THE GENESIS OF GUIDANCE-PERSONNEL WORK
Ruth Barry
Beverly Wolf 381

BOOK REVIEWS 397

APRIL 1957

TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD VOL. 58, NO. 7, APRIL, 1957

The TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD is issued eight times a year, monthly except June, July, August, and September. The subscription price is $4.00 per year; foreign postage, 50 cents. Single issues are sold at 75 cents each. Publication offices, 1407 Sherwood Avenue, Richmond, Va., and 525 West 120th Street, New York 27, N. Y. Editorial and general offices at the latter address. Printed in the United States of America. Second-class mail privileges authorized at Richmond, Virginia. Copyright 1957, by Teachers College, Columbia University. Microfilm copies of Vols. 55, 56, and 57 are available. For details, write to University Microfilms, 313 N. First St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

EDITORIAL STAFF

MAX R. BRUNSTETTER, *Editor*
LAWRENCE A. CREMIN, *Associate Editor*
JEAN B. TANNER, *Production Editor*

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

ARNO BELLACK
JOHN L. HUTCHINSON
ANNE S. MCKILLOP
RAYMOND PATOUILLET
E. EDMUND REUTTER, JR.
FRANCIS SHOEMAKER
EUGENIA K. SPALDING
KENNETH D. WANN
SLOAN WAYLAND

BUSINESS MANAGER
HAMDEN L. FORKNER, JR.

The TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD aims to present stimulating reading for educational workers interested in broad professional competence. Today the teacher, the counselor, the school nurse, the administrator—everyone in education—needs insights and facts from many areas of professional activity. It is hoped that the reader, whatever his specialty, will constantly find in these pages ideas he can put to good use.

Articles in THE RECORD do not represent a single point of view. Fruitful thinking comes often from the challenge of opposing ideas. Therefore the opinions of the contributors are not necessarily those of THE RECORD editors, and are not intended to reflect institutional policy.

CREATIVE AND MENTAL GROWTH, Third Edition

by Viktor Lowenfeld, Pennsylvania State University

A pioneer text in art education, this outstanding book integrates the creative development of each child with his personality growth—from his first unconscious stages of scribbling to his mature approach to creative work. The third edition contains a suggested curriculum of the arts in general education. The following new chapters have been added: Grading the Child's Product, The Meaning of Discipline in the Classroom, Coloring and Workbooks and Art Education, Adolescent Art, The Gifted Child, and Therapeutic Aspects of Art Education. *Published May 1957*

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF ADOLESCENCE

by Arthur T. Jersild, Teachers College, Columbia University

This significant new book differs markedly from others in its field in its view of adolescence, not as a self-contained experience, but as a crucial and complex part of human development as a whole. The objective, developmental, and personal approach to this study focuses attention on the adolescent as a person and on his attempt to understand and accept himself.

January 1957 *438 pages* *$5.00*

DEVELOPING A HIGH-SCHOOL CORE PROGRAM

by Lucille L. Lurry, Supervisor of the Core Program, Prince George's County, Maryland
and Elsie J. Alberty, The Ohio State University

This practical book thoroughly discusses the philosophical and psychological basis of the core program while emphasizing its specific purposes, structure, and techniques. Abundant examples from core classes indicate how a core program can be developed successfully with the cooperation of administrator, teacher, and pupil. *Published May 1957*

SPEECH CORRECTION IN THE SCHOOLS

by Jon Eisenson and Mardel Ogilvie, Queens College

Informal and non-technical, this introductory text gives the classroom teacher an understanding of basic speech difficulties and a practical knowledge of when and how he can help correct them. It discusses thoroughly the influence of the teacher's speech in the classroom and his relationship to the professional speech therapist.

January 1957 *294 pages* *$4.25*

The Macmillan Company
60 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK 11, N.Y.

IMPORTANT TEXTS

SCHOOL PUBLIC RELATIONS AS SOCIAL INTERPRETATION

SECOND EDITION. By Arthur B. Moehlman and James A. van Zwoll. A thorough, up-to-date presentation of the philosophy, basic principles, and techniques of public school public relations.
To be published in May.

HUMAN RELATIONS IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

By Daniel E. Griffiths. An interdisciplinary approach to the problems of human relations involved in public school administration, with thirty case histories. Illus. $5.50

SUPERVISION AS COOPERATIVE ACTION

By Muriel Crosby. Emphasizes human relations in supervisory processes. Includes an invaluable treatment of study aids and references. Illus. $3.50

READING DIFFICULTIES

By Guy L. Bond and Miles A. Tinker. A comprehensive coverage of the factors involved in diagnosis of reading difficulties and of remedial procedures. $5.25

IMPROVING READING IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

By L. Jane Stewart, Frieda M. Heller, and Elsie J. Alberty. The first volume in the new *A.C.C. Current Problems in Education* series. Paperbound, 95 cents

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Prepared by The Commission on the English Curriculum of N.C.T.E. The result of a decade of far-reaching research, study, and experimentation. Illus. $4.00

PLAYMAKING WITH CHILDREN

SECOND EDITION. By Winifred Ward. The new edition is directed more definitely toward the classroom teacher who is not necessarily speech-trained. Illus. $3.50

APPLETON-CENTURY-CROFTS, INC.
35 West 32nd Street, New York 1, N. Y.

excellent for college classes or professional library

AN INTRODUCTION TO EDUCATION IN MODERN AMERICA, Revised

Gordon C. Lee

Treats education as a social institution best seen in a cultural perspective; thorough revision of a well-known work
March 1957

THE TEACHER'S PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

William F. Bruce and A. John Holden, Jr.

A unique approach to the psychological understandings which promote better teaching
January 1957

WHY TEACH?

D. Louise Sharp

An inspiring tribute to the teaching profession from 114 men and women, known and unknown, from all walks of life
March 1957

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Leonard A. Larson and Lucille F. Hill

The first book to view elementary physical education with recent scientific developments in mind; details hundreds of activities for children
February 1957

TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS

Henry D. Rinsland

Covers all the major evaluations that the classroom teacher must know how to make
Fall 1957

THE CLASSROOM TEACHER AND GUIDANCE

John A. Barr

Written to train the elementary counselor, whether classroom teacher or full-time specialist
Fall 1957

SCHOOL HEALTH PROGRAM

Jessie Helen Haag

An orientation to the total school health program, setting forth ends and means in each of 8 important areas
Fall 1957

HENRY HOLT AND CO.
383 Madison Ave.
New York 17, N. Y.

OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION: Where to Get It and How to Use It in Counseling and in Teaching

By Robert Hoppock, New York University. Ready in June

A college text combining the sources and uses of occupational information. It is designed for use in courses training counselors for schools, colleges, and other organizations, as well as for all those to whom people turn when they want facts about jobs to help them decide what they will do to earn a living. It is the first book to cover, in one volume, the three aspects of the subject, i.e., where to get occupational information; how to use it in counseling; and how to use it in teaching. A comprehensive review and analysis of 17 different theories of occupational choice is included.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

By Peter P. Mickelson and Kenneth H. Hansen, Western State College of Colorado. *McGraw-Hill Series in Education.* Ready in July

An introductory text aiming to encourage improvement of the elementary school through emphasis on the development of educational leadership in the school. After background information on the organization and management of the school, the book delineates the responsibilities of the principal with a special section devoted to his problems in working with parents and the community, improving staff relationships, and administering special school services.

THE STORY OF EDUCATION: Philosophical and Historical Foundations

By I. N. Thut, University of Connecticut. Ready in June

Designed for advanced students of education, this unusual text provides an historical and comparative approach to the philosophy of education. All important philosophical theories concerning the ways in which knowledge is received, discovered and constructed, is analyzed. The book deals with the origins and evolution of the theory and practice of education in the Western World, and includes all recent developments.

REMEDIAL READING: Teaching and Treatment

By Maurice D. Woolf, Kansas State College; and Jeanne A. Woolf. Ready in June

A sound and authoritative text on the psychology of remedial reading. With a unique combination of psychological understanding and practical skills, the text covers various techniques used in diagnosis, counseling, instruction, and evaluation in the remedial reading program. It combines a classroom with a clinical approach, aiming to "present the causes, development, and methods of diagnosing, teaching and treating reading disability, as well as insights into how anyone might learn to read." Recent advances in group methods, new evaluation instruments and new class materials, are covered.

Send for copies on approval

McGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY, INC.
330 West 42nd Street New York 36, N. Y.

VOL. 58, NO. 7 APRIL 1957

TEACHERS COLLEGE
RECORD

Education and Politics in the Soviet Union

JOHN L. CHILDS

PROFESSOR EMERITUS OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE

In our sharply divided world, one massive problem overrides all others—the problem of the organization of the world for security and freedom. Those who know most about the potentialities of our present means of destruction are most concerned that we shall discover ways to preserve democratic civilization without resort to nuclear war. Our country is being measured by the manner in which she uses her resources in the struggle with international Communism. It is apparent that the political and moral aspects of this struggle are as important as the technological and military.

As President Eisenhower observed at his Inaugural press conference "everything else fades to unimportance" when put beside this problem of "making progress toward better world understanding." He also emphasized that this effort has two dimensions: first, the attainment of "a better understanding among the free nations of the world"; and, second, the attainment of "a better understanding with the Russians, the Russian Government"—an understanding that will eventually result in "agreements we all can trust."

If Americans are to develop and sustain wise policies for dealing with Communist Russia, they need to know more of the history, the philosophy, the ambitions, and the present functioning of the Soviet system of life and government. It is this need which underlies the importance of *The Challenge of Soviet Education.*[1] The writer knows of no other account of the genesis, organization, purposes, controls, and successes and failures of the Soviet Union which equals the one given in this book. Ever since Lenin's revolutionary seizure of power in the fall of 1917, Dr. Counts has been a close student of Russian affairs. On three occasions he made extended visits to the So-

[1] George S. Counts, *The Challenge of Soviet Education* (New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957).

viet Union, and he has been a constant reader of Russian newspapers, journals, books, Party documents, and government reports. His book demonstrates that one of the best ways to get the real significance of political, economic, military, social, and moral developments in the Soviet Union is to study them from the perspective of their impact on educational policies and programs.

All the Bolsheviks were devoted Marxists. Their conceptions of nature, of man, of society and the state, and of the inevitability of class struggle were derived from the Marxian philosophy of materialism. From the analysis of Marx they also gained their view of the impending collapse of capitalism, of the historic role of the proletariat class, and of the revolutionary possibilities inherent in the workers' organizations. Dr. Counts is convinced, however, that many of the characteristic features of the Bolshevist program are products not of Marxism, but rather of what earlier Russian revolutionists had suffered and learned from their unsuccessful attempts to overthrow the despotism of the Tsars. He contends that the following four fundamentals in the theory and practice of Bolshevism were taken from the experience and the teachings of the revolutionary leaders of Old Russia.

First, that an autocratic governmental and economic system can be overthrown only by a movement which is directed by a militant, disciplined minority possessed of comprehensive and bold plans which are not at all fully comprehended by the rank and file. Second, that members of this disciplined minority must repudiate the traditional moral code with its "softening sentiments" of kinship, brotherhood, honesty, humility, and square dealing. The revolutionist must act out of a transformed morality which is grounded in the elemental doctrine that "whatever aids the revolution is ethical; all that which hinders it is unethical and criminal." Third, that the executive group—the dictatorship—must retain absolute command during the period of transition and reconstruction when the new institutions and social relationships, the new pattern of rights and responsibilities, and the new habits, attitudes, and loyalties are being implanted in the lives of the people. Fourth, education is the indispensable agency for the development of the new type of man required to sustain the new social order. A revolutionist, therefore, must also be an educationist, for during the period of transition and tutelage the program of education has to be planned and controlled by the ruling minority.

Acting under these imperatives of revolutionary practice, the Bolsheviks undertook the correlated tasks of social and educational reconstruction. As Dr. Counts points out, the original leaders of the Russian Revolution—Lenin, Trotsky, Bukharin, Zinoviev, Radek, and their associates—were intellectuals. Although Stalin was less of an intellectual than many of his comrades, he shared their conviction that deliberate social control and organized education were essential forces in the construction of a Communist society.

All Bolsheviks believed that if a revolutionary undertaking were to achieve "historical significance "it must be guided by "a correct revolutionary theory." They also believed that social theory is empty speculation unless it completes, tests, and corrects itself through bold, determined action. They perceived that to achieve an economy of abundance Russia had to be industrialized, so they launched a series of comprehensive plans to provide the necessary material and

technological means. They recognized that the operation of an industrial civilization requires a literate population, so they undertook a systematic program to wipe out illiteracy. They believed that supernatural religion with its numerous superstitious practices is in conflict with the method of thought inherent in modern technology and science, so they sought to eradicate these traditional patterns of belief and devotion from the mentality of the Russian people. They realized that agriculture could make efficient use of technology and become harmonized with an industrial economy only as it was collectivized, so with ruthless brutality they eliminated all landowners who resisted their program of socialization. They were convinced that capitalist countries would be hostile to the development of a powerful Communist nation, so they organized and trained huge armed forces skilled in the use of the instruments of technological warfare.

In a series of penetrating and compact chapters, Dr. Counts provides the particulars of the ways in which the Bolsheviks moved to achieve their objectives in one department of life after another. He also shows how their educational objectives and practices were changed from period to period to fit developing social, political, and economic life conditions. He supplies a dramatic and documented record of the procedures by which scholars, artists, soldiers and officers, farmers, industrial workers, and specialists in the various professions were involved in the Bolshevik program and subordinated to its autocratic demands. In a tragic chapter on the education of rebels and other offenders, Dr. Counts shows how the purge, exile, and forced labor camps were all natural developments in a totalitarian dictatorship controlled by men who believed that their noble social ends justified any and all means. He describes, in even greater detail, the process by which the Soviet leaders formed and reformed their school and college programs for the political, intellectual, and moral indoctrination of the young. In the Soviet Union, the top leaders of the government give personal attention to the determination of the objectives, content, and methods of the program of organized education. They believe that, in the last analysis, the fate of their whole cause will depend upon the extent to which they can mold the immature into the desired kind of human being.

As Dr. Counts emphasizes, there is much of substance in what the Bolsheviks have accomplished through the industrialization of their country, the success of their campaign against illiteracy, their rapid and vast expansion of educational institutions, the provision they have made for scientific research and technological development, and the opportunities they have given women. As a result of their work, backward Russia in the short space of forty years has emerged as one of the great world powers. It is important that we do not underestimate the present and the potential strength of Soviet Russia. Her achievements have been bought at an appalling human price, but they are achievements nonetheless.

It is evident that Dr. Counts does not share the easy optimism of those who hold that Communist Russia is destined to disintegrate because its system of life and morality is contrary to the fundamentals of human nature. He states that "how long it will take to change the character of the Soviet people in conformity with the demands of Communism is a question which cannot be answered at this time. But the data presented in the present volume suggest that

the Bolsheviks may be well on their way toward the goal."

Nor can Dr. Counts be included among those who believe that the recent attack on Stalin and the "cult of the leader" means that the present ruling group are prepared to enter upon a program of decentralization and democratization. As he points out, the Twentieth Congress in which Khrushchev made his severe criticisms of Stalin "acted very much like its predecessors held under Stalin's iron rule. In spite of the fact that most of those present had been raised to power by Stalin and had praised him and his policies without restraint, no one of them rose to defend his old leader. The same unanimity prevailed as in the past."

According to the view of Dr. Counts, the Russian dictatorship conceivably could evolve into a democratic form of government, but this is not probable because it would involve the repudiation of the pattern of Bolshevism itself—and it is under this pattern that the old have lived and the young have been educated. He declares that "the clear logic of Bolshevism from its birth in 1903 leads inexorably to totalitarianism." "The purge," he believes, also "resides in the very logic of Bolshevism, and perhaps of any modern totalitarian system. . . ." Under a system where there is "no place for opposition, indifference, or even lack of enthusiasm, the center must continuously purge the Party ranks of enemies, critics, doubters, waverers, careerists, shirkers, and all unstable elements." And during "the bitter struggle for power which recurs from time to time, members of the opposition must be liquidated or rendered harmless. Only when Khrushchev and Bulganin proclaim the unqualified abandonment of that logic, the logic inherent in the rule by a tiny oligarchy of self-appointed 'morally and intellectually' developed persons, can men of sober mind hope for a significant change in the character of the Soviet state."

Whether one accepts or rejects the above conclusion, he will find *The Challenge of Soviet Education* a book from which he can gain indispensable knowledge of what the Communists have been about during the past four decades. In this study we have a seasoned scholar's account of the roots, faiths, practices, and fruits of one of the most gigantic undertakings of human history.

A Colombian Lesson in Comparative Method*

GEORGE Z. F. BEREDAY

ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE

To have visited a foreign country for three days, Harold Clark once said in effect, usually emboldens one to assume the role of educational expert. To have visited a foreign country for a week, however, is to have been there long enough to wonder, and perhaps to worry. After three days one begins to be less sure that one has learned much. The easy generalizations that one is so prone to formulate under the impact of first impressions begin to look less certain. People no longer all look tall or stocky, fair or swarthy, prosperous or poor. Their language ceases to be an incomprehensible, pauseless chatter; their views and opinions conflict and thus confuse; their educational philosophy and school organization, consistent and original at first, now reveal themselves to be as diverse and as contradictory as any in the world. Whereas three days bring security of conviction, six days are long enough to implant bewildering doubts.

The present article is the result of a one-week stay in Colombia. It does not pretend, therefore, to be an authoritative essay on Colombian education. The visit did, however, furnish an opportunity for an interesting experiment of a methodological nature. It cast light on the significant disparity between the value of *reading* about a country and *seeing* it. Travel has always been considered an indispensable part of the research equipment of comparative education. It is increasingly accepted as "broadening" for everybody. Less clearly realized is the fact that travel can be much more than a mere supplement to academic study. It can shatter neat mental images of foreign cultures derived from reading, no matter how careful. A live contact, the briefest "taste" of a living people, outweighs by far anything that one can glean from hundreds of printed pages. In comparative education this is particularly and painfully true, since the accounts of foreign education written by native educators are notoriously inaccurate.

It is a commonplace to students of comparative education that the field of their interest, some 190 foreign educational systems, is too broad a subject for one person to master. Workers in the field have accordingly specialized intensively in one or two, or at best three foreign areas. In these countries they are expected to have resided or visited for extended periods of time, and to have mastered the language. They are obliged

* Professor Bereday, who is in charge of work in comparative education at Teachers College, is completing a book on *English Education and Social Status*.

to follow closely and continuously not only the changes of educational organization, or even of educational philosophy but also all other relevant facets of politics, economics, culture, and society. In areas of specialization comparative educators are expected to acquire a deft touch, to sense the spirit of the culture. They must be able to define and interpret the educational system and its development in the light of their intimacy with the foundations and whole fabric of society.

However, the problem of what to do about the countries not covered by intense specialization remains unsolved by this method. Here comparative educators are merely collectors of source materials. The steady volume of educational literature, chapters on education and culture in works of more general nature, unpredictable sources varying from official documents to travel books—with all these they must have a nodding acquaintance. This means being constantly on the lookout. At any time *The Ladies Home Journal* may publish an article on Soviet kindergartens, *The Harvard Crimson* may print an interview with a Japanese educator, Ed Murrow may film a documentary on American race attitudes. Unlike the students of history, who can master their field by a simple combination of longevity and what the Germans call *Sitzfleisch* (translated, I suppose, as the capacity to sit still for long periods of time), comparative educators are doomed to a life of hunting. They must continuously sniff out, collect, and catalogue. In the matter of countries in which they do not specialize, their methods resemble those of the lawyers and the doctors. When the need is for information beyond their immediate competence they must know where the relevant sources are likely to be found and what they offer. And it is precisely in the areas in which only a quick and superficial consultation of readily available printed sources is possible that the greatest danger of receiving utterly false impressions from mere reading is most imminent.

COLOMBIAN EDUCATION IN PRINT

In an area of comparatively small interest, such as Colombia, a student in search of quick information will find only a few sources available. He will discover at once a somewhat outdated pamphlet of the United States Office of Education.[1] He may chance to see a mimeographed report on rural schools supplied by the same office.[2] The United Nations and other international agencies will yield here and there a chapter in one of their surveys or an account of last year's happenings in one of their Yearbooks.[3] Noneducational sources too may yield something on education or on matters relevant to its foundations.[4] Even if one can handle the Spanish sources immediately within one's reach, one will

[1] John H. Furbay, *Education in Colombia*. Bulletin 1946, No. 6, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

[2] William C. Sayres, *Formal Education in a Rural Colombian Community*. U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D. C., 1955.

[3] "Colombia" in *World Survey of Education*, UNESCO, 1955, pp. 170-75; "Colombia, Educational Progress in 1954-55," in *International Yearbook of Education*, 1955, pp. 122-24, and in previous yearbooks.

[4] For instance, W. Galbraith, *Colombia, a General Survey*. Royal Institute of International Affairs, London, 1953; W. O. G. (initials only), "Dictatorship in Colombia," *World Today*, 6, pp. 175-83, April 1950; Norman D. Humphrey, "Race, Caste and Class in Colombia," *Phylon*, 13, pp. 161-66, Second Quarter, 1952; A. P. Whitaker, *The United States and South America, The Northern Republics*. Harvard, 1948; M. Jorrin, *Governments of Latin America*, Van Nostrand, 1953.

add at best only a few new items.[8] All that is readily available in print in the United States pertaining to the development of Colombian education since World War II will require not much more than a few days of concentrated reading.

Such reading was undertaken by the writer as an experiment immediately before his departure to Colombia, and the mental image derived from it was not startling. It was an image of a country which for understandable reasons was less advanced than the United States but geared strenuously to the process of catching up with it. Colombia appeared to be situated on inaccessible plateaus between the *cordilleras* of the Andes, unable until the invention of the airplane to conquer the distances and difficulties of its terrain. Descriptions of a large-scale plantation system yielding coffee and bananas, mineral wealth in emeralds, gold, and silver, and hopes for discovering new deposits of oil seemed to create an atmosphere of economic optimism and a mood of expansion in spite of accounts of persisting poverty. There were reports of religious intolerance toward Protestant minorities, but the country was overwhelmingly Catholic and thus free from major religious tensions. Racially, the small numbers of pure Negroes and Indians and the absence of prejudices, evident in the large degree of race mixture, indicated a country free from tensions of this type. Politically, there was of course a military dictatorship, but it appeared to be of a paternal variety, and its history in the country has been sufficiently checkered to make it seem not too stable. Socially, one could perceive clear class distinction and many open references to "high society," but they seemed no greater than the corresponding distinctions and references in other European or Latin-American countries. This was a country of ancient Spanish culture, priding itself on being the most advanced on the continent and keenly interested in keeping its intellectual concerns alert and growing. Its liberal temper in defiance of conservatism has had a long tradition. The sympathies of its people with the democratic form of government were increasingly evident. Its zeal for further progress was obvious.

In education too the impression gained from reading was that the country was keen on expansion. The venerable colonial university tradition appeared to have been steadily maintained and expanded until a country of some 12 million people now has over twenty universities and senior colleges. The secondary school system (or at least the private schools) was vastly enlarged and government reforms were aimed at a relaxation of the *bachillerato* requirements to make it more suitable for larger numbers of people. In the realm of primary education the statement that "there is no justification for noneducational expenditures while a single child still remains to be educated" blazoned one of the most recent reports. In 1954, Colombia had some 15,000 primary schools and some 650 secondary schools, and its enrollments comprised about 80 per cent of children within the compulsory school age limit. The national education budget increased by nearly 40 per cent between

[8] For instance, publications of the Ministerio de Educación Nacional: *Memoria del Ministro de Educación Nacional* (1951 was the latest available); Departamento Nacional de Enseñanza Primaria, *Planes y Programas de la Enseñanza Primaria Rural y Urbana*, 1950; *Regimen de la Enseñanza Secundaria en Colombia*, 1952; Itinerarios de Cultura, *Escuela, el Maestro y el Campo*, 1952; Fondo Universitario Nacional, *El Bachiller Colombiano y su Porvenir Profesional*, 1956.

1953 and 1955. Parallel with the work of the central government, local authorities and private bodies worked hard to increase the number of available classrooms, to improve the training and salaries of teachers, and to extend the system of radio schools for adults and of the other schools for the eradication of analphabetism.

There were, of course, serious shortcomings in the educational program, a normal situation for an underdeveloped country. Illiteracy prevailed among nearly half of the total population and almost two-thirds of the children did not attend school to the full compulsory age. Almost half of the official primary schools were *escuelas alternadas* which boys and girls attended in shifts for half a day or even on alternate days. An overwhelming number of secondary schools were private schools and open only to children whose parents could afford the high fees. There were grievous shortages in classrooms and in numbers of teachers. Local governments were greatly handicapped by having to finance most of the cost of school building and maintenance and all of the salaries of teachers. The political riots of 1948, when the murder of a liberal leader, Jorge Gaitan, touched off an uprising against the tottering Conservative government showed plainly the undercurrent of poverty, despair, and dissatisfaction throughout the nation. The communist and guerilla unrest in certain sections of the country testifies to the fact that this unrest has not abated.

The more comprehensive the reading the greater the amount of detail on the credit and on the debit side of the educational picture, and the greater the accuracy with which one can perceive the nature of Colombian problems. All this information the reader will assimilate with ease. Even if he questions the accuracy of some of his sources he will think himself able to make allowance for undue optimism and exaggeration. But he will not be able to escape the final impression that the multiplicity of problems and internal difficulties are the only reasons for reported shortcomings of the educational system, and that because or in spite of these the fight waged against poverty and ignorance of the widely scattered mountain-dwelling population is intense.

What the reader will probably not realize (since this writer, a seasoned reader of comparative educational literature had great difficulty in remembering it prior to the actual visit) is that he has been interpreting the realities of Colombian education in terms of North American educational themes. He has accepted the belief that people everywhere consider education desirable, that they want as much education as possible, that they would know that more education will lead them to a better life, that maximum utilization of talent and the optimum conditions for its exercise would everywhere be the unchallengeable basis of happy society and sound education. All these are deeply ingrained educational criteria in the United States. From the moment the unwary traveler discovers with shock that the airline whose leaflet assured him that "the traveler from the United States has no trouble in making himself understood" has deposited him in a country where even at the airport and in the hotel lack of Spanish is the severest handicap, his observation of the Colombian people and their education is likely to be full of surprises.

PERSONAL CONTACT

One has to *be* in the country, talk to people of all classes, thread through

churches and market places, visit the crowded cities and isolated *pueblos* in the hills to discover that not so much what one has read but the *frame of mind* in which one has read it was utterly at variance with reality. The almost subconscious basic assumptions in the United States do not hold, or at best hold only partially, in Colombia. Only by being in the country can one slowly come to the realization that the central theme of the whole educational enterprise is not that mass education is desirable but that it is undesirable. Quite pervasively, although the attitude is not expressed in words, education is considered harmful and unsettling to the people. The motions through which official agencies go to convince the world, domestic opinion, and themselves that they should have education for all, are sometimes a product of pipe dreams, sometimes a clever cover-up for inactivity, but always a postulate that breaks down the minute it is confronted with realities.

A general attitude toward education is not that it should be plentiful and available, thus raising the economic level of the country, but that it should be restricted and unavailable, thus avoiding the unsettling of the established modes of life. After a short visit a statement of such a principle can hardly be an unwavering generalization. It is so startling that one tends to sidestep it and to search in the surroundings for facts with which to refute it. The evidence, however, is too suggestive to be ignored. The principle of "less education less trouble" is familiar to historians of aristocratic societies of the pre-industrial era. We have simply become used to the proposition that the elite societies of our time propound as we do the principle of mass education but, unlike us, from Frederick the Great to Lenin have devised ingenious machinery of indoctrination and thought control over literate masses. Nevertheless the principle of "the less education the better" has survived in countless contemporary societies. It survives in Colombia, where neither the leaders nor the people seem ready to depart from its ancient precedents.

It only takes a few days for the evidence of this to start crowding in. One is prepared by one's reading to expect everybody to talk about expansion, buildings, teacher training. One is staggered by the realization that literally nobody is talking about these things. Universities old and new, and prominent private secondary schools are pointed out with pride on every tour through city and country. But not only is one not shown public schools officially; upon private inquiry one finds that there are not many to be seen. One discovers, at least in the capital, that there are practically no primary school buildings. Most classes are held in rented rooms in buildings used for a variety of purposes. In the country, too, one has difficulty discovering them at all. Even in the model village, the center of a growing system of schools by radio, there is a schoolhouse for the kindergarten, and imposing institutes have been built for the training of auxiliary radio monitors, but the primary school for boys consists of a shabby classroom tucked away at the back of one such institute. The visitor soon becomes accustomed to seeing swarms of city and country children roaming the city streets, trading, performing, begging. Upon inquiry he discovers that the majority, including some thirteen-year-old mothers, do not attend school at all.

In the secondary field there also seems to be no indication of expansion on a national scale. In the past decade the

government succeeded in founding some 130 secondary schools with carefully defined programs, selected teachers, and pupils recruited as scholarship holders almost wholly from poorer families. Further expansion of these schools cannot take place, however, as long as social custom declares it undesirable for anyone "who counts" to send his children to the public schools, and as long as championship of public secondary schools represents a business competition with the Church. All public schools, of course, are run on religious lines completely satisfactory to the hierarchy. But the majority of private schools are directly owned by the Church, and such lucrative source of revenue has created a powerful vested interest. The identity of interest of church-owned and secular private schools has placed all of them in a sheltered position in spite of the occasional attack by the Church on those of the Protestant faith. Their number now exceeds 500, and they occupy some of the handsomest, newest buildings. Anyone attempting to expand public schools runs thus the risk of being quickly branded a heretic or an enemy of the Church.

The proposition that no education for the people is the best safeguard against trouble is naturally attractive to the "old families" which still rule the country in alliance with or as members of the army and the Church. In a country which is self-sufficient agriculturally and solvent through surplus exports, most of what the ruling group needed from abroad to maintain their comforts could until recently be imported without difficulty. The economic interest of this group lay, therefore, not in improving the purchasing power of the nation but in keeping the wages low and debarring the popular force from the source of political authority. Low level of education is an ideal implement of this social goal. The drive for the improvement of general conditions has thus no economic and social buttress. It stems purely from humane and philanthropic attitudes championed by the intellectual middle classes.

But the alliance of reformism with intellectual forces is not a happy one in view of the traditional values of the Spanish heritage. Education in Colombia belongs by definition not to everyone but exclusively to those already possessing culture. The culture traditionally throve in sheltered and select cloisters, and was bestowed only on men of distinction and refinement. One finds also that the quality of culture is traditionally not practical but spiritual; its theme is not application but depth of reflection, not grasp but soaring. This of course creates an excellent environment for the erratic, intricate individual genius. It also makes it impossible for others to check on the quality of his thinking. People feel rather than think, and tradition protects their right to do so by surrounding their contemplation with respect and approval. Intellectually the Spanish culture makes generous provisions for the philosopher, the thinker, and the dreamer; it has to pay the price of accommodating itself to the charlatan, too elusive to be understood and exposed. The country's intellectual leaders are thus likely to be impractical dreamers or skillful frauds. Colombian education has on the whole neglected the qualities of organizing talent, efficiency, and perseverance. One looks in vain among the now educated upper and middle classes for a real focus of initiative from which powerful stimulus to educate all people might conceivably come.

The character of the culture affects not only those who benefit from restric-

tions of education but also those who lose by it. There is no real pressure from the common man for wider educational opportunities. The major contact of the peasant is with the Church, and the Church, like the culture which it largely created, emphasizes spiritual values. Reflection and perfection rather than action characterize also the culture of the *campesino*. Living in adobe huts (often carefully whitewashed and thatched), lavishing labor on his picturesque garden, carefully garbed for market day in his *ruana* blanket and *sombrero*, while his women wear identical hats and long black shawls, the peasant shows his culture through his simple dignity and elaborate courtesy of language and manner handed down through generations. Compared with these traits, formal schooling has significance to him only insofar as it removes illiteracy—a social stigma in a culture that treasures book learning. Otherwise, schooling is considered a hindrance in the villages hard-pressed for early child labor. Lack of communication and transport as well as lack of education contributes to great deficiencies in diet and hygiene. But poverty is less grim amid the green hills. It is only the city concentration that brings out its full horror. There is thus little incentive for the peasant, just as there is little effort by his more fortunate countrymen to move education away from the sanctioned usages of centuries.

INDUSTRIAL IMPACT

There is only one qualification to this picture. If Colombian education at all resembles ours it is because it has been exposed to our influences. No society—certainly not one that must depend on the airplane for its main lines of communication—could remain isolated from the upheavals of an industrial era. The need for machinery, the desire for modern buildings, roads, automobiles, and last but not least for armaments established a new situation. Wealthy Colombians returning from foreign travels and wealthy resident foreign colonies created a demand, indeed a passion, for the produce of industrial civilization. There is thus being grafted to the still solid core of old beliefs and practices a whole set of puzzling new forces that jar the calm security of conviction of a society constructed on pre-industrial lines. Like most other nations which wish to emulate industrial countries, Colombia has not yet discovered the formula whereby it can catch up with progress without wanting and working to catch up.

As would be expected, the arrival of industrialization has had a significant impact upon the two pillars of the old order, the class hierarchy and the Church. As regards the former, industry has as a matter of course called forth a new urban middle class and proletariat. The new demands almost overnight created a great shortage of highly skilled personnel. There is an acute need for engineers, geologists, architects and also for teachers, economists, and doctors. This characteristically has had the effect of placing great stress on the expansion not of the whole system but of the universities only. To finance and at the same time apparently to protect them, a semi-independent Fondo Universitario Nacional was created. The universities are the one sector of Colombian education in which there is real liveliness. But the increase in the number of students created new social problems. It resulted in greatly strengthening the numbers and influence of the intellectual middle class. It is precisely the threat of new liberalism that has forced the old families in alliance with the army to impose upon

the country one of the first military dictatorships in Colombian history. The frequent student riots and ferment in the universities continue, however, to be the source of instability. As the economic realities of the old situation are obliterated, the maintenance of educational and social monopolies is put in jeopardy by the swelling of the middle ranks committed to the philosophies of the industrial age.

The large numbers of peasants lured to the cities by higher wages and the superficial attractions of city life lend further strength to this movement. The attraction of industrial progress is well illustrated by the story of the village priest who showed a movie, the first his parishioners had ever seen. Before starting to run it, he had to cajole them to face the screen rather than the camera. But after the showing, in response to his suggestion that a gift of a few chickens might start them toward acquiring their own movie theatre, he discovered that 800 chickens had been delivered to his doorstep. This is the actual story of the beginning of economic recovery of the village of Sutatenza, but it also demonstrates the initial motivation through which increasing numbers of farmers may decide to move to the city. Far from their villages, herded into dingy slums, unschooled and uncared-for, the people of the towns are an appalling picture of poverty and an easy target for exploitation. As the crowded cities sprawl, and the polo clubs sell and move out, the incoming peasant begins to lose his initial country air, his clothes accumulate the city grime, his peasant cautiousness and poise give way to city feverishness and pursuit of fast profit. His income by rural standards gets bigger, and his general intellectual grasp gets higher. But he is not given any formal training; instead he must rely on the limited skill he can learn on the job. Here is fertile soil for potential explosion. And yet the real effort of the country continues to be in the field of the universities, while primary and secondary public education receive what amounts to only lukewarm lip service.

The changes within the Church are perhaps in a Latin-American situation even more significant. The Colombian Church like the Spanish Church has traditionally been ultraconservative. Its history is one of collaboration between the ruling aristocracy and the church hierarchy. But industrialization has brought social problems which demanded new solutions. The attempts of Communism to find one have forced the Catholic Church into a competing position.

The encyclicals *Rerum Novarum* and *Quadragesimo Anno* of Pope Leo XIII and Pope Pius XI, respectively, inaugurated a new policy which significantly affected the character and purposes of the Church in all areas. The recent clash between the policy of the Vatican in Spain and the faction of Cardinal Segura, culminating in the defeat of the latter, best illustrates the new trends within the Church. In Colombia they have brought about an internal cleavage of conscience and the paradox of a consistently conservative Church now inaugurating cautious educational reforms. While on one side the position of the Church impedes the expansion of secondary education and does little to awaken interest in primary education, on the other side individual initiative within the Church has devised ingenious and promising means to make up to adults the neglect they suffered as children. In particular, the system of schools by radio devised and built up by a young priest, José Salcedo, in the mountainous and remote village of

Sutatenza, represents a forward-looking and tightly organized program of community development of an almost unlimited potential.

It is an exciting venture. A master teacher in the central studio instructs from a standardized textbook in the three R's and offers a smattering of home economics and agriculture. Some 300,000 pupils ranging in age from four to sixty-four gather in off hours, mostly in family groups around a small battery-run radio. From the same textbooks and charts as the teacher has, and with the assistance of one of their own number trained as an auxiliary in special institutes in Sutatenza, the pupils learn how to read and write, how to count, and how to improve their homes and farms. Within an eight-month course most pupils achieve semi-literacy and many go on to more advanced courses constantly devised by an alert staff in a Bogota headquarters. The schools by radio run by the Acción Cultural Popular are the most singular achievement of Colombian education and its major claim to fame. One must note, however, that this is still purely fundamental education. No attempt to open opportunity and to promote talent in keeping with the march of industrialization has as yet been devised in Colombia.

Between the efforts of the *escuelas radiofonicas* to bring literacy into the home, and the two-year, one-room rural primary schools in more fortunate *pueblos* lies the total story of education received by the great majority of Colombian people. There seems to be no immediate prospect for a change in this situation in a nation which deep down is not interested in making the change. At least this seems to be an inescapable conclusion from the data gathered in one week in a firsthand contact with a little-known culture. No research, no large-scale system of checkups, no comparative statistics buttress up this conclusion. Only patiently gathered opinions of people, firsthand visits, and personal impressions form its tentative basis. But it does seem remarkable that the impressions gathered from reading and those gathered from travel should be so utterly at variance. That there is an urgent need for more careful field research abroad, and greater multiplicity of intercultural contacts would seem to be an inescapable conclusion. At least, in comparative perspective, even brief travel demonstrates without question that the apparent similarity between the educational lament of a Colombian farmer who "no puede leer" and the plaintive North American rationalization of "why Johnny can't read" conceals a veritable abyss which cannot be fathomed by mere looking up of references.

A Mississippi Workshop Too Is People*

JANE ELLEN McALLISTER

PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, JACKSON STATE COLLEGE, MISSISSIPPI

A WORKSHOP is people. In this case the people were an instructor and twenty-six principals from twenty different counties in Mississippi. As the workshop progressed these people stood revealed not just in terms of their intellectual attainments, values, attitudes, and aspirations but indeed in terms of their reaction to the policy and tradition of subordination and exclusion. In these six weeks of a workshop held in a period of stress and potential change, it was impossible for the participants to disregard the powerful forces affecting their minds and hearts.

But the principals were by no means all who were in the workshop; and each hour, in every discussion and conversation, the "presence" of the others became more clearly apparent. They were 12,074 children, 326 teachers, and other citizens of 70 back-home communities. They were the children and the Negro and white adults of Tutwiller, Toomsuba, Shubuta, Bude, Europa, and a score of other small and not so small towns in Mississippi. They were the Johnnies and the Marys who dropped out of school to pick cotton and then again to hoe cotton, and who since the opening of the new branch library for Negroes had spent all their summer days devouring books after long starvation for them.

Present in the workshop were the Superintendent Roes, the members of their boards of education, and other leading citizens in towns which had built new modern schools for Negroes and furnished them well with books and equipment. But present also were the Superintendent Does, who were accepted by workshop participants with a hopeless resignation as not interested in schools for Negroes. These unseen people in the workshop were as powerful in their influence as if they actually occupied seats during the long summer days.

The purpose of this account is not to describe in detail the activities of the workshop. It is to tell simply how these people thought and felt about themselves, their problems, and their schools and communities. The story reveals, often in the workshop participants' own words, how rather typical Negro principals and teachers see things in this critical time for education in the South.

WORKSHOP CONCERNS

Long before the workshop convened, participants were facing problems on which they wanted immediate, specific

* Dr. McAllister taught for many years at Miner Teachers College, Washington, D. C. Her professional writing includes articles contributed to *Christian Science Monitor*, and to *Educational Leadership, School Executive*, and other periodicals. For a number of years she has been a trustee of Talladega (Ala.) College.

help. In some cases, things in school and community seemed to be sliding out of control; in other circumstances, opportunities were being offered of which principals, teachers and children could not take advantage. The participants sent problems to the Mississippi State Department of Education and to Jackson State College, and out of the desperate urgency of these problems grew the workshop. Questions such as these were asked:

1. What shall I do about the rootlessness of pupils and the indifference of parents when the small school that has always been the center of my community is merged with other small schools in the new consolidated school?

2. How shall I, who have only a background of vocational agriculture, administer this combined elementary and high school?

3. How shall I provide for myself and my school and community experiences which under changing conditions will enable the white and Negro groups to live and work together constructively and satisfyingly?

4. Shall I or shall I not include my membership in the NAACP and perhaps lose my job when I comply with the law which requires that I list before a notary public the organizations to which I have belonged for the past five years? Is it ethical to omit an organization?

5. Since the functions of the Jeanes teachers* are changing so rapidly, what shall I do to bring about a more effective relation between these teachers and the principal?

6. We are getting a new school. How will we educate children to attend school for nine months when they have been used to attending seven months, stopping for cotton picking, hoeing, etc?

7. What shall I do about the reading level of my pupils? My pupils are at least two grade levels below national norms; for example, the sixth-grade children read at fourth-grade level. How can I improve my own reading?

8. What shall I do to improve the family, financial, cultural, and sociological background of the pupils—the cause, I believe, of the educational lag among Negroes?

9. What shall I do to overcome the defects in pupils which are the products of long years of segregated schools?

While these problems sound similar to those in other workshops, their uniqueness lies in their special background. The participants saw these problems *first* in the light of the state reorganization program for higher teaching standards. For a generation or more, from a feeling of indifference or of condescension, requirements for Negro teachers had not been strictly enforced. Superintendents might employ unqualified teachers who had influential white friends, or sometimes deliberately ignore teachers with preparation for those without preparation who would be content with a lower salary. Now suddenly Negro teachers were required to have A and B Certificates. As desirable as this was, it meant a race for credit hours, the preoccupation with the outward sign of the degree, rather than with the inward knowledge.

The participants saw the problems, *secondly*, against the backdrop of the times. "We are living," they felt, "in a second Reconstruction Period with people now as then possessed by the challenge of making dreams of education and freedom into reality." To them this was a period of the most intense anxiety to measure up to new demands. They had

* Negro supervisors supported by the Anna T. Jeanes Fund and so named for the Pennsylvania Quaker who gave the Fund.

become acutely aware that the average Negro student because of inferior environment was below the average white student. They knew that because of previous inadequacies of environment and evils of discrimination pupils were unable to profit immediately and to the fullest extent from the better schools, bus transportation, and textbooks suddenly thrust upon them. This situation was true not only of pupils but of teachers who, though outwardly bearing the signs of degrees and certification, were still suffering from the inadequacy of educational diets of former years. The workshop participants saw their problems, *third*, in the light of the fact that the Supreme Court Decision had broken up the surface calm of the towns in which they worked. And *fourth* they saw the problems against the general sociological changes and reluctances of the South, one of which is the reluctance of a community to shuck the lethargy of a dead past.

PROBLEMS OF SELF

Inextricably interwoven with the problems vexing the participants was the concept which each had of self. From the beginning each person attempted to gain an understanding of himself—his emotions and attitudes, his handicaps, his abilities, and his values.

They talked with each other in the friendly atmosphere of a workshop where all had suffered the same humiliations, had the same types of problems. For instance, there was Ernest Brown, idealistic and impatient principal in a very backward community, disillusioned and disgusted by his failure to secure a lunch-room program and recreation facilities; the workshop participants listened to him and then helped him pinpoint the experiences, the forces, and the emotional background of his youth which made him what he was. Perhaps, he and they concluded, a succession of frustrations had made him bitter; perhaps he had allowed antagonisms to grow which got in the way of his exercise of leadership. The participants called to his attention his most important asset: his never-wavering focus on children—not just Negro children but all children, for he firmly believed the "prejudiced child is a disturbed child—fearful, insecure, maladjusted, unhappy, unconsciously seeking a scapegoat on whom to project his distressed feelings." The participants helped Ernest Brown see the possible effect of his having had only 52 months of a rural-school education (40 months in the elementary grades, and 12 months in high school) before going into the army and then passing the General Education Development Test for entrance to Jackson State College. They helped him see the bitterness and the humiliation that festered in him because of incidents which occurred after he became a principal. Once after a setback in his attempts at school improvement, Ernest Brown had taken courage from the fact that his white superintendent was a university-trained man. He went to the superintendent with his proposed solutions of school problems. To his dismay there was no meeting of minds. With a hint of amused contempt, inexplicably addressing the visiting teacher as "Preacher," his fellow educator remarked casually, "Go home, Preacher; don't go bothering your head about lunchrooms and such things." Mr. Brown withdrew, asking himself in a stunned sort of way, "If education fails to bring changes to the hearts and minds of those placed in positions of authority, what is left?"

Other participants likewise found in open discussion some answers as to why

they thought and felt as they did. John Doe and several other principals having difficulty with the administration of the recently consolidated elementary and high schools began to understand the insecurity which made them dictatorial and autocratic. They had been trained very narrowly in vocational agriculture at a time when whites traditionally encouraged Negroes to go into only such courses; as a consequence when appointed to a position that required more preparation, they tended to compensate for a feeling of inferiority. As the participants looked back over their childhood and youth for the bits of truth which helped them understand themselves, they sensed more keenly the problems of their pupils and glimpsed possible solutions for these problems. To illustrate, when they found themselves deficient in reading ability, and voluntarily used one hour of their leisure each day to practice reading, they kept asking, "Can we use these same methods, films, and exercises with secondary students back home?"

WORKSHOP ACTIVITIES

The participants of course worked on organization plans, schedules, curriculum experiences, bus transportation—the common problems of the school principal. But they chose also some unusual activities. For example, they wrote letters to the PTA, teachers, trustees, or newspapers in their home communities. They said, "It is amazing how little Southern white people know not only of a certain class of Negro, but of what the Negro public schools are doing. We intend to use these letters (1) to report to the white daily papers in our respective communities what Negro teachers are doing and thinking, and (2) to keep up interest in school over the summer months in order that the average attendance will be higher than in past years."

It was in these letters that they most clearly revealed their thinking and feeling. For instance, one principal said in an open letter to his superintendent: "I have a guilty feeling toward the children in my town, for I know I was unable to give them what they wanted and what they needed. I failed them. I failed to find solutions to many of their problems. But, sir, you too failed."

A different relationship between the principal and superintendent was implied in the following letter: "Mr. Superintendent, I thank you for pulling my coat tails the second time to get me to see how important it was for me to go to school. I shall be forever grateful to you for the interest you have shown in me and I hope I can repay you by good service in coming years. We are hoping you and other superintendents will look in on us."

As the various letters were read aloud before mailing, it was noteworthy how the writers were appealing to an enthusiasm and esteem, almost veneration, for education which many of their school patrons had; though in many cases the principals admitted that patrons failed to understand the discipline of attendance at school, and the perseverance necessary to acquire an education.

Another experience the participants considered rewarding was interviews within the workshop group. The major question in the interviews was, "What are you especially proud of having achieved in your schools?" In answering the question, one principal described how his school acquired audio-visual aids:

". . . At Hopewell High School we have built up an interest among faculty and students in audio-visual aids. . . . I

borrowed a projector from the county superintendent of education in order that the teachers might see and use one. . . . Acquainted with the machine, the teachers and pupils were willing to purchase one projector. . . . Now we have three slide film strip projectors, a 16 mm. movie projector, and about 150 boxes of film strips for the slide projectors."

Another told of a different kind of achievement. "With a student body of 368 pupils and a staff of 11 teachers in this school, we organized and financed a band, and taught this group of young people band music because they were willing to give a whole day picking cotton to get a down payment on musical instruments. . . . Students who rented the instruments agreed to meet the monthly payments. I promised to teach after school hours free. This is the way we started a band in our school."

A third described how "we made a contribution." The Negro school building in his community was too small to accommodate the increased population. The chairman of the board said, "If the Negro community will buy . . . five acres, I will persuade the county to grant you a larger building." At least 10 per cent of the entire community (white and Negro) said the Negroes should not have to buy the ground to get the building. The chairman of the board said, "It is up to you. Stay where you are, or buy more ground and get a new building." The principal convinced key men that two hundred children crowded in a two-room building created an unhealthy and dangerous situation. The key men called a meeting of patrons and landowners and convinced them that if other people were willing to spend twenty thousand dollars on Negro children, Negroes should be willing to spend six hundred dollars on their own children.

Still a fourth described how a citizen fulfilled his responsibility to the school. . . . "The water supply in our school was not sanitary. The shallow open well with an electric pump was located below the school building and playgrounds. The appeal to the local county superintendent resulted in the usual reply, 'No funds.' We appealed to an influential white man who in turn went to the superintendent and laid the cards on the table . . . something had to be done to safeguard the health of the Negro children. The superintendent had to understand that he was elected by the people to serve the people and these Negro children were to be considered regardless. . . . A well was bored and drinking fountains were placed in convenient places for children."

Why the letters and the interviews expressed so little bitterness is difficult to explain, for they disclosed that much of the school equipment and materials had been purchased not by public funds but from the resources of parents and from the proceeds of programs and entertainments. Perhaps the facts that the schools had for so many years received so much less and that the schools attended by the participants in their childhood and youth were so much worse, explain the lack of resentment and the amazed gratitude at what was being done for the schools.

Still another workshop enterprise was a survey of attitudes of white toward Negro teachers and vice versa. At first the participants, although college graduates, leaders in their communities, and well-equipped to observe with perception, were not overly eager to talk about desegregation; indeed, they were apprehensive that they might talk too much even about general attitudes of white and colored people, a subject which comparatively recently they would have discussed quite freely.

Answers regarding the attitude of Negro and white teachers reflect considerable range. For instance, "In the more urban areas in my county," said one, "both white and colored teachers think that all teachers ought to have equal salaries according to certification and a definite salary scale."

Said another, "In some cases the colored teachers show more prejudice than the white."

"Recently," said another, "the white teachers have seemed a little cooler to Negro teachers. In my opinion, they do not believe Negro teachers are capable of doing work equal in quality to theirs."

A somewhat different view came from another quarter. "Recently several white teachers visited our school. They said they were inspired a great deal and thought we too were doing a good job. Colored teachers here feel that white teachers should be more cooperative. The colored teachers feel that, although the white teachers will not admit it, many of them are as poorly prepared as some Negro teachers for their jobs. The colored teachers think too that with all the working facilities that white teachers have, they *should* do a better job!"

The participants' interpretation of attitudes may reflect their respective experiences with white people. There was the Mississippi-born-and-reared minister who said, "My experiences with white people have been pleasant and rewarding. As a boy there were no bitter conflicts. In college our religious organizations sponsored interracial gatherings on our campus. As a young minister, I enjoyed a fine fellowship with the young white minister of my town—the helping-helpful type. As a chaplain in the army I served all races, and after the war, before I returned to Mississippi, I was pastor of an interracial church."

An entirely different attitude may be due to this experience reported by another participant. "When I was fifteen years old my people belonged to a benevolent society. The white people thought it was an organization to make the Negroes dissatisfied. They understood that the society would take care of the members until they could get the price they asked for their labor. Thereupon they found the secretary's home, learned who the members were, and lashed them."

A third interpretation of Negro–white relations may have arisen from the following situation: "The first two years of my school life were spent in a one-room school. I was taught by an older girl, as the teacher was kept busy with the 125 other children. The school terms were four months in those days. After school closed, my parents taught me to read and write and figure. My parents were bitter about the lack of schools in our county."

Differences in interpretation of attitudes reflect not only varied experiences, but also variety in the character of the towns in which the participants have their roots. The following community settings as described in the participants' notes are illustrative.

Setting for Principal A and his school: The community is a nonfarming area. Ninety-five percent of workers are employed out of county. The people are very religious, but the churches are led by uneducated personnel. Few people send children away to school. During the period of forty years only five people have gone out of the county for study. The school board consists of uneducated white farmers, who have no interest in Negro education as such but who are very cooperative towards Negroes otherwise. The Superintendent of Education says, "Wait," and talks of outside "pres-

sure." Finally he lines up with the Negro who is uninterested in education.

Setting for Principal B and his school: Our one-crop farming system has caused the farmers to suffer from seasonal changes, insect pests, and high-cost production. Landowners near my school and community are changing from cotton-growing to cattle-raising. Tenant farmers are much distressed because they are no longer needed on the farms.

In addition to the activities which have been described, the participants engaged in various field studies. They visited Oakley, the State School for Negro delinquents, in order to study the effect of social and cultural background. In a contribution to human relations they toured the local branch of two industries that Negroes patronized on a national basis, but whose local branches employed no Negroes. They studied the living standards in Negro middle-class and lower-class homes, and built a collection of pictures showing Negro businesses and the Negro standard of living, for part of an exhibit on a minority group sent by the United States Information Agency to twenty-two foreign countries. They organized showings of classic and educational movies to demonstrate to the 2000 teachers attending summer school on the campus, one way of helping to raise the cultural level of their respective communities.

EVALUATION OF THE WORKSHOP

After a year had passed, the participants were asked, "How much of what you planned and dreamed during the workshop have you actually accomplished?" In answering, they responded mainly in terms of improved physical plant and equipment and better in-service teacher programs. But the thinking and feeling of the workshop participants became apparent in discussions on the last day of the workshop. They felt, first, that the workshop helped them face with constructive action the fact that the middle-class Negro group has had middle-class status for an average of ten years while the middle-class white group has had middle-class status for an average of two generations. It helped them face in a similar spirit the reality of the cycle of poorly prepared Negro teachers teaching severely handicapped Negro students.

Second, the participants believed the workshop made them know that "in order to be a realist, you must believe in miracles"—miracles made possible by men of indomitable character to whom every setback becomes a challenge. And third, the workshop gave them the *self-confidence* to meet the cold war which might be waged as the Negro became better educated and earned the freedom and respect he desired. One of the consultants who had kept in touch with the people of the workshop and correctly interpreted their hopes and aspirations and the why of their doing, thinking, and feeling summed up his acquaintance with the following quotation: "Their simple lives take on significance and meaning because they see themselves not as pawns moved by the hand of fate or a dictator but as small pieces set by their own determination in a magnificent design."

Research in Nursing in the United States*

Some Reflections on Its Development

HELEN L. BUNGE

PROFESSOR OF NURSING EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE

EVERY occupation or profession progresses unevenly along its several fronts. A major advance into one new line of development will be followed by a push in another direction. This developmental pattern exists in the history of nursing. At present a great deal of attention is being given to research, both in nursing service and in nursing education.

Is there any way of accounting for the emphasis on nursing research at this particular time? Although a number of factors are involved, two are of particular importance: the shortage of nursing personnel since the beginning of World War II, and the development of nursing as a profession. For fifteen years the acute shortage of nursing personnel has been a serious problem and the nursing profession has been faced with the necessity of alleviating this shortage. The solution that was appropriate during wartime is not acceptable on a long-range basis. In the process of coping with the extreme shortage, the nursing profession was catapulted into the systematic study of nursing service and nursing education, with special emphasis on the maximum utilization of nursing personnel. Precedent and tradition have played a minor role in handling these problems, since old answers were not adequate.

Another factor accounting for the emphasis on research is that nursing is slowly taking on the attributes of a profession. One of these attributes is the responsibility of enlarging the body of knowledge in the field. As a result, nursing is beginning not only to apply systematic study methods to problems with which it is directly confronted, but also to take the initiative in identifying the types of questions that must be answered if nursing is to do long-range planning and to assume its full role as one of the health professions.

The reader should not gather from the foregoing paragraphs that research in nursing is a development of only the last fifteen or twenty years. On the contrary, one need only read the life of Florence Nightingale to realize that the founder of modern nursing was an expert in research and a recognized statistician. In this country too nursing can point with pride to reports of studies done in former decades. *Nursing and Nursing Education in the U. S.* (1923), *Nursing Schools Today and Tomorrow* (1934),

* Professor Bunge is Executive Officer of the Institute of Research and Service in Nursing Education. From 1930 to 1940 she was a member of the faculty of the School of Nursing at the University of Wisconsin. Later she was dean of the Frances Payne Bolton School of Nursing, Western Reserve University.

An Activity Analysis of Nursing (1934), and *Survey of Public Health Nursing* (1934) are examples. Undoubtedly many studies of much smaller scope have never been reported to the nursing public.

Increased awareness of the need for systematic study comes at a time when nurses are not preparing for this function in appreciable numbers. Nor has the organization and functioning of the typical agency employing nurses stimulated and demanded the development of critical and analytical thinking by nurse practitioners.

WHAT IS RESEARCH IN NURSING?

Nursing draws from and is built upon social and natural sciences. A nursing science has not been identified. Research in nursing, then, involves the use of principles from the social, biological, and physical sciences. Research methods appropriate for nursing are those used by workers in both the natural and the social sciences. Many questions in nursing lend themselves more readily to the techniques of research employed by psychologists and sociologists than to the precise methods characteristic of the natural science field.

TYPES OF RESEARCH IN NURSING

During the past several years a good deal of systematic study has been done on the social climate of hospitals and on the activities of nursing personnel in hospitals. The evaluation of nursing care, including patient reaction to care, has also received attention. Some research has been conducted on the choice of nursing as a career, the satisfactions of nursing as a career, and the public image of the nurse.

The types of research in nursing that are undertaken reflect the background and interests of the persons involved. Much of the research reported is in the field of education for nursing. This predominance may be explained by the fact that many studies are made by students meeting the requirements for master's or doctor's degrees in universities. Most of these students are preparing for positions in schools of nursing.

Comparatively little systematic study has been conducted on direct nursing care and the problems the practitioner meets in hospital, home, school, and clinic. Examples of questions on the direct care of patients that need better answers than those now available are legion: What effect do good nurse–patient relationships have on patient welfare? Does increasing the amount of nursing time provided patients hasten their recovery? Are the principles of aseptic technique applied as well as possible in nursing care? Concern about the lack of research in direct patient care is steadily mounting.

Nursing is experiencing the same stages in the development of its research program as have other professions. The first efforts have been concentrated on studying the professional group to learn more about who they are and what they do. Research of an exploratory nature that results in the formulation of hypotheses has also been prominent. Later development will undoubtedly show increased emphasis on the study of problems in the actual practice of nursing.

WHO CONDUCTS RESEARCH IN NURSING?

Nursing organizations and others have, over the years, initiated and conducted studies of nursing problems and of health problems that bear on nursing. At present

our national professional organizations are expanding their research activities. For example, the American Nurses' Foundation, established in 1955 by the American Nurses' Association, "plans, promotes, guides, and coordinates research on professional nursing, and improvement of nursing care."

Universities too have taken an interest and one or two have made a rather large contribution. The contribution of students in graduate programs to the systematic investigation of problems has already been mentioned. In some cases faculty members or experienced nurses brought to the faculties have been the principal investigators of research sponsored by universities. In general, however, few nurses are employed on university faculties with the understanding that a part of their responsibility is to pursue research in nursing. In fact very few teachers and administrators in nursing have been prepared to assume the planning and conduct of research. Now that there is a growing awareness on the part of faculty members and administrators of the need for and the importance of research, and a growing competence in research methods, we can expect more nurses to engage in it. Research takes time and money. To release faculty members from some of their functions as teachers and administrators so that they may assume research activities aggravates problems in both areas. The shortage of nurses for leadership positions is acute. Furthermore, universities do not look with favor on the increased budget that results from expanding the functions of nurse faculty members to include research.

A recounting of who is conducting research in nursing must pay tribute to practicing nurses, particularly in hospitals, who have for years played an active part in medical research. Their part is often largely confined to collecting data during the course of their daily care of patients. Sometimes, however, they serve as one of the team of workers who plan and assess the research. Too often the vital part that these nurses play in the success of the project is not mentioned when the research is reported.

Government agencies are playing an increasingly large part in nursing research. For example, the U. S. Public Health Service, the Veterans Administration, and the military services are all actively engaged in research and in stimulating and coordinating research. Our national professional nursing organizations are expanding their research activities also.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT OF RESEARCH IN NURSING

The strides in research in nursing in very recent years have been made possible by increasing financial support. Some of this support has come from nurses themselves. For example, members of the American Nurses Association underwrote the series of Studies of Nursing Functions that was sponsored by the organization during the past six years. As has been stated, some universities are beginning to take an active part in research in nursing and are contributing to the financial support of it.

Foundations have been a source of financial support for research in the health fields, including nursing, for years. On many occasions Foundations have been willing to back a promising idea, taking considerable risk in their placement of funds. Their liberal policies have not required that every step and method be spelled out before considering financial support. They have been willing to gamble, realizing that good

hunches in capable hands may result in a significant contribution to the field. Without willingness to take a risk, a promising hunch may never be tested.

The greatest impetus to research in nursing during the past few years has come from federal funds earmarked for nursing research. These funds are made available by the U. S. Public Health Service. The first year, 1955-56, $500,000 was appropriated by the Division of Research grants and the following year, $700,000 was provided for this purpose. The impact has been far-reaching in nursing and health circles and the amount of research under way has increased tremendously.

DISSEMINATION OF RESULTS OF RESEARCH IN NURSING

The purpose of research in nursing is to improve nursing practice, the care of patients. Dissemination of research findings is imperative if nurse practitioners are to have access to them. Nursing is developing the same types of outlets as have other professions. The nursing associations are helping to distribute the findings through special booklets and pamphlets, and through their regular channels. Foundations are giving a hand, and some reports are being made available by commercial publishing houses. Branches of government have also played a part in the dissemination of results of research in nursing.

In 1952 the first issue of *Nursing Research* was published. Originally under the aegis of the Association of Collegiate Schools of Nursing, it now is sponsored by the National League for Nursing and published by the American Journal of Nursing Company. Its primary purpose is to publish reports of research that are not otherwise available. The magazine also contains news notes about research activities, and makes mention of some research in nursing and allied fields that is reported elsewhere.

Every professional field faces the problem of reducing the span of time between the uncovering of new knowledge and its use by members of the profession in improving practice. The first requirement is to place the results of research before the professional group. Adequate dissemination of the results of research is an essential step toward the improvement of practice through the uncovering of new knowledge.

PREPARING NURSES FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH

All professional nurses are concerned with research on a consumer level. The consumer must be in a position to evaluate research in his field, or to know how to obtain the technical assistance he needs in evaluating it. We shall not improve nursing practice through research unless those in nursing practice make it their responsibility to assess the research being done and to use the findings.

A sizeable number of nurses are in demand to serve as participants on research teams, but without responsibility for designing and taking leadership in conducting research. These nurses need to know enough about research to work productively under the guidance of the research team leader.

Some nurses will wish to prepare themselves as directors of a research team, taking the initiative in designing and conducting research. This type of responsibility demands grounding in a nursing field, in the basic sciences, in research methods, and in statistics. A nurse who goes about preparing herself as a research worker has "majored" in nursing and not in psychology, for example. She must know enough about the basic

sciences and research methods and statistics, however, to use the talents of persons in these special fields advantageously.

Two additional roles in research that are played by nurses should be mentioned here. A sizeable group of nurses teaching in graduate programs carry responsibility for advising students on the preparation of master's theses and doctor's projects. To be effective in this field requires some skill in research.

Also, administrators in agencies and hospitals giving nursing care are continually faced with the necessity and desire to define and systematically study nursing problems. Frequently no member of the staff is equipped to take leadership in identifying and defining problems needing study and in commandeering the necessary facilities to embark upon the study. An administrator who feels some security in research can make a real contribution to her agency.

Preparation for research does not begin at the doctoral level. All of nursing education should provide some exercise leading to increased facility in problem-solving methods.

A word must be said about the increased financial aid available to graduate students who wish to prepare in the field of research in nursing. Not only have general scholarship funds been increased in the past few years, but grants specifically earmarked for students preparing for research are now available through the U. S. Public Health Service. This financial assistance has provided a stimulus to qualified nurses who could not otherwise afford to leave positions for a period of study.

THE INSTITUTE OF RESEARCH AND SERVICE

The obligation of a university, especially its graduate school, to further research is undisputed. Teachers College, Columbia, has the largest number in the country of students in nursing registered for doctoral programs. It is natural then that the faculty of the Division of Nursing Education should elect to develop the research component of the programs.

The Institute of Research and Service in Nursing Education was inaugurated in 1953 on a five-year experimental basis. It is the only Institute of its kind in the country. Funds for the period to ensure a core staff to inaugurate, steer, and administer the Institute program were granted by the Rockefeller Foundation. The total grant was $100,000. The Institute's purposes are to conduct research, to give field service in relation to research under way in the Institute, to disseminate the results of research done in the Institute, and to assist in the preparation of research workers in nursing.

All research conducted by the Institute must be supported by funds secured for the purpose. Currently it is conducting several projects. One project deals with how the training and experience of corpsmen in the military services can be evaluated and built upon by civilian schools of nursing. Another aims to identify behaviors shown by nursing service administrators, supervisors, and head nurses that are especially effective or ineffective in accomplishing their jobs. Still another project deals with the identification of stress situations in preservice educational programs in nursing and among employed graduate nurses.

At present the staff consists of both full-time and part-time persons actively engaged in Institute projects. Consultants are called upon from time to time. The number of persons involved fluctuates as projects vary in their demands. This year two interns are working closely with the staff in Institute projects.

These projects are the "live" material for the class on research methods offered by the Division for doctoral candidates in nursing who are concentrating on preparation for research.

The increasing interest in research of the students who are registered in the Nursing Division on a doctoral level gives the faculty reason to believe the expansion of the emphasis on research is timely. The increasing number of requests made to the College from all parts of the country for nurses with research competence make the faculty aware of their tremendous responsibility to prepare as soundly as possible as many students as can be accommodated—and as quickly as possible.

SUMMARY

Research in nursing in the United States is receiving increasing attention and impetus. The methods used in the study of nursing problems are characteristic of both the natural and the social sciences upon which nursing is based.

Although various types of nursing research have been engaged in, particular attention has been paid to the study of nurses as a group: who they are, why they entered the nursing field, what they do, and how they feel about nursing. It is probable that in the future more attention will be given to the study of direct nursing care, including the everyday problems in nursing practice.

Universities, nursing organizations, Foundations, and government agencies are sponsoring research, supporting it financially, and disseminating the findings.

With the accelerated research activity, nurses with research skills are in increasingly great demand. Universities have a particular opportunity and responsibility to prepare research workers.

Founded in 1953, the Institute of Research and Service in Nursing Education of Teachers College is playing a role in preparing nurses as consumers and active participants in research. Through the projects conducted by the Institute, students have an opportunity to keep in close touch with research in progress, and to receive experience in the research methods being used.

Literature as an Aid to Social Development*

NICK AARON FORD

PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH, MORGAN STATE COLLEGE, BALTIMORE

In his essay on "Literature and Science" Matthew Arnold enumerates the powers that distinguish man from animal as "the power of conduct, the power of intellect and knowledge, the power of beauty, and the power of social life and manners." When we have met and adjusted the claims of them all, he says, we shall be in a fair way of getting soberness and righteousness, with wisdom.

It is Arnold's contention that literature makes a greater contribution to the perfection of all of these powers than any other discipline in the school curriculum. While we recognize the sweeping implications of this position, it is appropriate for us here to explore in some detail the possible implications of only one of the powers he enumerates—the power of social life and manners—so far as it concerns the teacher of English in a world grown too small for the survival of human beings with animal ways.

If, from birth, a child were denied all human contact he would grow up to be an animal—nothing more. The results of milleniums of human progress achieved by man in his struggle from animalism to humanity are not passed from parent to offspring by biological inheritance. Nature decrees that each generation pay for its endowment of human qualities by the tedious process of teaching and learning. The teacher, therefore, is charged with the responsibility of aiding the social development of children and adults by whatever means are most effective. Teachers of English and of the social studies are peculiarly well equipped. I shall confine my observations to the teacher of English.

What is the major objective for social development that teachers of literature should expect to accomplish?

When we examine the nature of social life we find that it consists of attitudes toward and relationships with people—people in varied activities at home, at school, at play, at work. The over-all objective is the development of attitudes that permit the child and the adult to maintain relationships that are fair, honest, just, and magnanimous. Such relationships are possible for all normal individuals. That so many never fully achieve them is one of the most serious indictments that can be made against some homes and schools in a culture that is generally regarded as the most enlightened in human history.

* An address delivered at the annual meeting of NCTE, St. Louis, Mo., November 22, 1956. Dr. Ford has contributed articles to *The New England Quarterly*, *Journal of Higher Education*, *College English*, and other periodicals, and is the author of several books.

Although the child's first encounter with social concepts is at home, home is not necessarily the most potent influence in the development of these concepts. Especially is this true when society is undergoing great stresses and strains as is the case at present. When social taboos are being challenged by new interpretations of law and simple justice, the home often lags behind, clinging to outworn traditions and prejudices nourished in an atmosphere of ignorance and fear, seeking to "attempt the Future's portal with the Past's blood-rusted key." In such times, if a child is to be saved from the agony of uncertainty and utter confusion, the teacher of English may well come to the rescue. He can offer, through literature, new insights and new visions of which the narrow horizons of many homes have never offered the faintest glimpse. He can lead the student, through literary experiences, to recognize that his family, his community, or his little group of friends is only one of a vast multitude of such groups; and that, consequently, the ideals and social concepts he has uncritically accepted must be measured against those of other homes, other communities, other social groups before their values can be rightly assessed. This the teacher can do through the vicarious experiences of literature.

Rosenblatt suggests that through literature the adolescent is provided with a broader perspective from which to view his own struggle to conform to a dominant social pattern. He must live within the framework of his own culture, she admits, but his vicarious experiences through literature can free him from the blind and unthinking adherence to its images of success. "Moreover, he can be liberated from submission to excessively narrow standards that may be imposed by the limited environment in which he finds himself. One of the most interesting things about our society is its heterogeneity, the number of cultural subpatterns that exist side by side. If the youth is brought up in some limited geographic or social setting, or if he is aware only of the most generally accepted standards, he may be equally in danger of too narrow a view of what is socially approved. Adolescents often need to be liberated from these excessively narrow ideas."[1]

There are many significant goals for social development toward which a vital program of literature should aspire. Five, particularly, call for consideration.

Satisfactory membership in the family circle is one goal that deserves a high place in the hierarchy of social desiderata. There is no problem more troublesome to children or adults in a rapidly changing society than the proper relations of parents to children, children to parents, and husband and wife to each other. How much freedom should children expect? How far can children disagree with their parents and still be satisfactory members of the family circle? To what extent must children obey tyrannical and unreasonable parents? What are the responsibilities of marriage and parenthood? These and a host of similar questions leap into awareness as we survey this goal.

Although we cannot here list specific approaches to all these aspects of satisfactory family membership, it may be helpful to name such selections as Shakespeare's *King Lear*, Ibsen's *A Doll's House*, Austen's *Pride and Prejudice*, Butler's *The Way of All Flesh*, Meredith's *The Ordeal of Richard Feverel*, and Balzac's *Pere Goriot*. This is not to

[1] Louise Rosenblatt, *Literature as Exploration* (D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938), p. 180.

suggest that the answers to the foregoing questions are explicit in these volumes; but it does suggest that enough issues are presented, from many points of view, to guide the questioners to more broadly based answers.

A second goal is *loyalty to worthy ideals.* In the midst of much cynicism and materialism many youths today are in grave danger of losing too soon the glory and the freshness of "the dream." Too often they do not know the satisfaction that comes from looking beyond the narrow walls of present circumstances to the boundless horizons of an ideal. Once they participate wholeheartedly in Sir Galahad's quest for the Holy Grail, "as down dark tides the glory slides, and star-like mingles with the stars," they will never again be intimidated by the drab details of a prosaic world where men "grow pale, spectre-thin, and die." The awe-inspiring spectacle of Socrates drinking the hemlock, of Oedipus plucking out his own eyes, of Joan of Arc being burned at the stake, or the simple devotion of Evangeline seeking her lost lover every hour for twenty years, of Florence Nightingale literally giving her life to the sick and the wounded in hospitals and on battlefields, of Albert Schweitzer devoting his life to the dire health needs of the jungle tribes of Africa—these visions of loyalty to an ideal can do much to counteract the anti-social tendencies of selfishness and pride.

The third goal for social development to which a vital program in literature should aspire is *the evaluation of individuals on the basis of personal merit rather than stereotyped conceptions.* Literature is full of stereotypes that can do great harm to minorities of all kinds—racial, religious, political, economic. It is the teacher's duty to help young people to detect these stereotypes and to analyze them in the light of individual experiences, and in so doing, protect young minds from the tyranny of irresponsible writers who are willing by a glib phrase or a comic characterization to degrade a whole race, or sect, or social group.

Walter Lippman says in *Public Opinion,* that too often we do not first see and then define; we define first and then see. We pick out what our culture has already defined for us, and we perceive it in the stereotyped terms of that culture.

Webster's *New Collegiate Dictionary* defines *stereotype* as "anything undistinguished by individual marks, as if produced from a cast of type metal." To point the dictionary definition to literature specifically, a stereotype is a fictional character who has been endowed with traits, mannerisms, or patterns of conduct supposed to characterize an entire class, sect, or race, but which in reality represent prejudiced generalizations handed down from generation to generation. For instance, in the person of Shylock, Shakespeare stereotyped the Jew as a heartless money lover who places the value of a dollar far above human suffering or life itself. Even today, after a lapse of more than three centuries of constructive philanthropy by numerous Jewish financiers, the Shakespearean stereotype persists.

From the beginning, much American literature has portrayed Negro life within the framework of a few well-defined stereotypes—the contented slave, the happy-go-lucky roustabout, the laughing clown, the superstitious dupe, the lover of outlandish clothes with varied colors, and many others. You know them well.

H. A. Overstreet, the distinguished

philosopher long identified with New York's City College, and author of *The Mature Mind*, made the following comment in an article published in *The Saturday Review of Literature:*

> The time is more than ripe for fiction writers to examine the whole program of image-making. . . . By the turn of a phrase, or by a simple description of a Negro character, they can sharpen the racial conflict or lessen it. They have in large measure been responsible for many of the false and misleading images of the Negro that persist in the white man's mind. For the most part, they have used him either as material for the white man's entertainment or as evidence to prove the white man's superiority.[2]

Of course, I am not advocating that books which stereotype minorities not be read, but I am suggesting that for the sake of the wholesome social development of children and adults in a democratic society somebody must be prepared and willing to point out the true from the false, the genuine from the spurious. I know of no professional group in America better equipped by training and perspective to accept such a responsibility than the teachers of English. Their recommendation of such biographical works as *The Americanization of Edward Bok*, *The Autobiography of Andrew Carnegie*, *The Life and Times of Frederick Douglass*, and Booker T. Washington's *Up From Slavery* could do much to counteract unfavorable stereotypes of minority groups.

A fourth goal for social development could be the *willingness to substitute sympathetic understanding of human action for blind judgment.* The tendency to characterize all action as either good or bad is a sign of social immaturity. The comic book and the Western serial have done much to popularize extremes in vice and virtue. The devotees of these media of entertainment heap praise or blame on the hero or the villian with no effort to evaluate degrees of guilt, power of motivation, intent of the actor, or the pressures of environmental conditions. A balanced literary program for the development of social values will seek to reverse this trend. It will encourage students to defer judgment until some of the deeper sources of motivation or the special circumstances surrounding an action are understood. It will discourage the judging of Othello's actions by American standards, or the deeds of Hawthorne's characters by the rules of twentieth century conduct. It will insist that understanding is more important than judging, and that understanding must always precede an act of judgment. It will present *Crime and Punishment*, *An American Tragedy*, *Knock on Any Door*, and *Native Son* as sympathetic studies in the social and economic pressures of our culture rather than as horrible examples of unprovoked murder.

Finally, the *recognition of world brotherhood* as a desirable goal is only a short step for those who accept the theory of sympathetic understanding. The old adage "To understand all is to forgive all" is not an idle comment. William Hazlitt, the English critic and essayist, suggests that the more we know of what another person is undergoing, the more we sympathize. The same ability that enables a person to project himself into the future and anticipate events which do not yet exist, he explains, also enables him to enter into the feelings of others. This ability to identify oneself with the problems and sufferings

[2] H. A. Overstreet, "Images and the Negro," *Saturday Review of Literature*, August 26, 1944, p. 6.

of others is the beginning of brotherhood.

The charter of the International Association of Writers (P.E.N.) has recognized this goal in the pledge of its members to "use what influence they have in favor of good understanding and mutual respect between nations . . . to do their utmost to dispel race, class, and national hatreds and to champion the ideal of one humanity living in peace in one world."

In *What Is Art?* Tolstoi says, "The task for art to accomplish is to make that feeling of brotherhood and love of one's neighbor, now attained only by the best members of society, the customary feeling and the instinct of all men." With this sentiment Walt Whitman agrees, for he declares, "Literature is big only in one way—when used as an aid in the growth of the humanities—a furthering of the cause of the masses—a means whereby men may be revealed as brothers."

Now, I am aware that the values in literature which I have outlined are only inherent and may never be realized, unless we who teach are ourselves dedicated to their realization. We cannot truly advocate that which we do not believe. If we are not satisfactory members of a family circle; if in our hearts we do not know that to live triumphantly is to keep alive the dream, to nourish the vision that looks beyond; if our minds are not yet free from racial or religious stereotypes; if we are not willing to substitute sympathetic understanding for blind judgment; if we dare not defy the narrow prejudices of our community or region to embrace the concept of universal brotherhood; then, I am afraid, these goals I have suggested will remain forever but broken glimpses of what might have been. I earnestly hope that every one of you may have the desire and the courage to become true adventurers in the realm of human relations, and, like Ulysses, resolve that "some work of noble note may yet be done," that " 'Tis not too late to seek a newer world," and that, at least, you will "push off . . . strong in will to strive, to seek, to find, and not to yield."

The Genesis of Guidance-Personnel Work*

RUTH BARRY and BEVERLY WOLF

THE PERIOD from 1890 to 1918 was one of turbulence and transition. During those years there were tremendous changes in ways of life, in economic and social patterns, in business and industrial procedures and methods. These rapid changes created many new needs in various areas of life, but notably in education and in the range of school responsibilities. The guidance-personnel movement came into formalized being as a partial answer to some of the most pressing needs both in education and in society as a whole.

In many ways, the years since World War II resemble the thirty years preceding World War I. Vast technological changes, social upheaval, and increasing scientific knowledge have all contributed to make the present era equally tumultuous and challenging. Many of the needs and problems in education today virtually duplicate those which were important in the early decades of the century. Many of the same needs for guidance and personnel work are still urgent today, while new needs have combined with the old to expand guidance-personnel responsibilities. Because of the strong similarities between the needs and problems of 1900 and of the present day, a discussion of the modern issues in guidance-personnel work necessitates a consideration of the background that gave rise to guidance-personnel endeavors and of the beginnings of that unique movement in education.

THE BACKGROUND

At the turn of the century, several elements combined to facilitate the beginning of the guidance-personnel movement. There was a clear need for the work advocated by the innovators; there was a climate of opinion that made the work acceptable to large numbers of people; there were means for implementing the work; and finally there was a place in which the experiment could be conducted. These elements merged to promote wide and rapid acceptance of the guidance-personnel idea.

The schools and colleges provided a suitable and willing locale in which guidance-personnel work could be put into operation. Methodology grew through improvisation and through contributions from other fields. Locale and methodology of guidance-personnel work have received attention from many writers in this field. The broad need for the work and the factors favoring its introduction have not, however, been sufficiently analyzed to permit the development of an adequate perspective on current educa-

* A chapter from *Modern Issues in Guidance-Personnel Work*, a book soon to be published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia. The authors are co-editors with Dr. Esther Lloyd-Jones of the Series in Guidance and Student Personnel Administration, which is also published by the Bureau of Publications.

tional and societal needs and problems. Without such perspective, one cannot view guidance-personnel work as a whole or its relationships to education and to the larger society. This perspective grows out of an examination of the need for guidance-personnel work and the climate receptive to it at the turn of the century.

The Need for Guidance-Personnel Work. Although the process began earlier and has continued up to the present, remarkably rapid industrialization occurred in this country between 1890 and 1918. A predominantly agrarian society changed to an urban and technological one. With industrialization came new kinds of work and new specialties. As machines took over the work that hand craftsmen had formerly done, men had to take on the jobs of operating and repairing the machines and of developing and inventing better ones. These new areas of work created demands for correspondingly novel training. Such demands placed new responsibilities upon the schools, and courses in manual training, vocational education, business skills, and domestic science found a place in school curricula. But additions to school curricula did not determine who should take the new courses or help students to plan their futures in a rapidly changing world.

As factories grew and businesses multiplied, ever-increasing numbers of people sought employment in the cities, and American society changed from a rural to an urban one. In the cities, family groups tended to become smaller and less self-sufficient. Many women as well as men worked outside the home; children, once economic assets, became liabilities. Working parents and parents unfamiliar with city life could not offer their children all the help and advice that they needed. As a consequence, the schools began to assume more responsibility for the child in all areas of his life rather than solely in the intellectual.

People who came to the United States in the waves of immigration between 1890 and 1920 also tended to settle in the cities. In the larger cities, settlement houses helped children from other countries to learn a new language, to understand new mores, to learn skills, and to obtain healthful recreation. Their activities, however, could not reach all who needed such help and the schools began gradually to assume many of the settlement-house functions. Here was still another area in which guidance-personnel people were needed to develop school programs designed to promote personal and social learnings.

As industrialization and urbanization increased, more women began to work outside the home. They also began to play a political role and campaigned for such diverse things as the right to vote, equal rights with men in social and economic affairs, equal educational opportunities, temperance, and birth control. This period witnessed an upswing in the number of girls who went on to secondary school—and even to college—as well as the addition to the secondary school curriculum of such new courses as typing, stenography, and domestic science. The increasing number of girls in schools as well as the problems that arose from helping them to plan their educational futures made educators recognize the need for people who could work with these newcomers and, as one educator put it, assume responsibility for "strengthening and refining the social manifestations of the adolescent girl."[1]

[1] Romiett Stevens, "The Advisor of Girls in High School," *Teachers College Record*, 20:302, September 1919.

As a result of industrialization and the growing importance of scientific and technical skills, education became more popular during this period. Rather than a privilege for the few, it became a necessity for all. Enrollments then rose rapidly even as they are doing today—in fact, high school enrollment has doubled every ten years since 1890. With rising enrollments came greater heterogeneity of students. Whereas the classical curriculum had been deemed suitable for a majority of the students before the turn of the century, it became increasingly evident that that same curriculum was unsuitable for many of the students who flocked to the schools in the early decades of the twentieth century. These new students hastened the development of more varied school curricula. Heterogeneity of students also created new guidance problems for educators in the areas of educational and vocational planning, sectioning, remedial work, discipline, and others. It is not surprising that educators and laymen looked to guidance for a panacea.

Collegiate educators felt many of the same pressures that were affecting their counterparts in elementary and secondary schools. College curricula too were expanding and new courses in the physical and biological sciences as well as whole new departments in sociology, psychology, anthropology, and business management were created in many institutions. At the same time, numerous institutions of higher education either introduced or expanded a system permitting students free choice of their courses. The elective system, which developed as a reaction against the rigidly prescribed curriculum that had preceded it, greatly complicated the problems of course selection and program planning for college students. In colleges and universities that were still under the influence of German intellectualism, the need for personnel workers to help with student problems became apparent.

Americans have always been interested in the utility of whatever they do, and a college education was no exception to this rule. There was a growing feeling during this period that a college education ought to be useful, that a student upon graduation should be ready to *do something*. When William James formulated his philosophy of pragmatism, he seemed to supply a rationale for the common American assumption that the test of an idea is its practicality—if it works, it's valid and has value. This popular notion not only required collegiate educators to explain the need for and the value of a college education, but also brought them face to face with their students' vocational and placement problems.

College educators found themselves answering many charges and criticisms about aspects of higher education other than its value and practicality. In his *Annual Report* for 1911, the Commissioner of Education commented on the ferocity of the arguments about the purposes of higher education, and remarked that both laymen and professionals were battling with "varying degrees of knowledge, prejudice, passion and dogmatism." The colleges were accused of "ineffectiveness, traditionalism, wastefulness, snobbery, irreverence and agnosticism, and the unfitting of men for really useful lives."[2] Implied in many of these accusations was a concern about the growing secularism in colleges and universities. Intellectualism had tended to crowd out

[2] *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ended June 30, 1911*, Vol. I. (Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, 1912), p. 37.

the earlier emphasis upon the development of the moral and spiritual values of college students. Hence as personnel workers became a part of the college scene they assumed responsibility for helping students with their spiritual life.

Important too in creating the need for guidance and personnel work in the schools and colleges were the changing ideas and theories about education and what it should do for students. G. Stanley Hall helped to shift the interest of educators away from subject matter and toward the student when he advocated a student-centered curriculum that would focus upon the needs and interests of the students. New developments in testing and the study of individual differences reinforced this focus upon students as individuals who differed radically from one another. John Dewey, although agreeing with the importance given to the individual learner, deplored the theories that placed the student and the subject matter in opposition. He attempted to reconcile the old and the new and to stress the social responsibilities of the school. He viewed the school as an "embryonic social community" in which students could practice the social skills that they would require in later life. Other educators, attempting to translate these theories from words into practice, increasingly looked to early guidance and personnel workers for implementation of these new ideas.

Industrialization, specialization, urbanization, the changing role of women, the growing need for education, rising enrollments, expanding curricula, rising secularism, the desire for a useful education, and new educational theories are some of the changes and developments that created or intensified the need for guidance-personnel work. Despite these changes and developments, the response to the needs arising from them might not have amounted to a guidance-personnel movement if opinion had not been receptive to it and an intellectual atmosphere fostering revolutionary concepts in education had not existed.

Receptiveness to Guidance-Personnel Work. There was in the United States during the nineteenth century, a rising tide of humanitarianism. This sentiment stemmed in part from the Judeo-Christian ethic stressing the importance of each individual human being before God, in part from the ideas of the Age of Enlightenment in Europe emphasizing the worth and dignity of every individual, and perhaps in part from the conditions of early pioneer days in this country, when every individual assumed added importance because the population was so small. Whatever the source, this humanitarian concern for others expressed itself in many ways: small-scale village or town charitable organizations; amelioration of the condition of the slaves and finally their emancipation; reform movements of all kinds; large-scale philanthropy in the form of gifts to establish libraries, zoos, playgrounds, and educational institutions; the settlement-house movement designed to help the immigrant and the underprivileged; and many other efforts, all related to the desire to improve the lot of the less fortunate. This humanitarian spirit was reflected in the efforts of Clifford Beers and Adolf Meyer to foster the study of mental hygiene and to improve the care of the mentally ill. The ideas of guidance-personnel work were part of this humanitarianism—a focus upon the individual and a design to enable every student to derive the greatest benefit from his education.

The shifting of the frontier also helped to create a readiness for guidance-

personnel work. By 1900 the physical frontiers of this country were technically closed. There were no new areas of of land to be explored, and although there were still lands to be settled, the emphasis in American life and thought had shifted from exploration and pioneering to consolidation and development. This shift was accompanied by a subtler one in the qualities and training that men and women needed to carry on the new kind of life. Physical prowess and the abilities that characterized the successful pioneers became less important, while intellectual abilities and educational training gained in importance. In a sense, the physical geographical frontier was replaced by an intellectual one. This shift accentuated the necessity and furnished impetus for many educational developments—among them the guidance–personnel movement.

Modifications and growth along the intellectual frontier also prepared educators and laymen for new directions in educational thinking. Three new academic disciplines—anthropology, sociology, and psychology—concentrated attention upon man in his relationships with his fellow men, with the larger society, and with himself. Concepts from these areas began to influence educational theory and practice. New psychological theories, for example, were basic to the educational ideas of G. Stanley Hall, and sociological thinking found its way into education through the work of John Dewey. More influential, however, than any individual theory was the focus of these new studies upon man and his relationships—a focus re-emphasizing and strengthening the growing recognition of the importance of each individual and his educational development.

Since the end of the Civil War, another concept had slowly been contributing to the changing view of students and their education. The idea of democracy as we think of it today developed slowly and really gained prominence after 1900. The numbers and new type of immigrants directed the attention of many educators to the importance of helping these newcomers to understand the democratic process and the American way of life. Immigrant parents looked to the schools to provide their children with the information and help that they themselves could not give. Many Americans also began to feel that *all* children needed to learn about their country, its ideals and its values. The approach of World War I and the surge of patriotism that accompanied it intensified this concentration upon democracy and its values. When the guidance–personnel movement, with its emphasis upon the individual and his role in the democratic process, began to gain momentum it found ready acceptance from those educators who recognized citizenship and democratic training as part of the educational function.

Humanitarianism, the growth of the intellectual frontier, new subject-matter fields stressing man and his relationships, and the concept of democracy—all contributed to and were a part of the prevailing attitude at the turn of the century. All helped to prepare the way for the formal development of guidance–personnel work. Some of these concepts (humanitarianism and democracy, for example) formed part of the direct background for many of the guidance–personnel ideas, while others merely prepared the way and created a readiness for the work as it developed.

In answer to the changes and the resulting needs of the period, the guidance–personnel movement came into formalized being. Needless to say, the work

did not begin all at once. Elements of personnel work were already in existence in some colleges and universities and some educators had begun facets of the work in secondary schools. Nevertheless, more than isolated endeavors are necessary to start a new educational movement and it was during the years between 1900 and 1918 that guidance–personnel work began to assume the proportions of a major educational development.

THE BEGINNINGS

Guidance–personnel work began with the activities of some interested educators in widely separated schools and colleges throughout the country. These people, working apart from one another, developed programs that were individualistic and suitable primarily to a particular institution and educational level. These programs usually reflected the most pressing needs of the students in a particular institution or community. Since the problems of college students tended to be similar in many institutions, college personnel programs also tended to resemble one another more than they resembled high school guidance programs. Hence, in the early days guidance and personnel work tended to be separate and discrete and, therefore, the beginnings of guidance–personnel work must be viewed in that light.

College Personnel Work. Formal college personnel work really began with the work of the early deans of women and probably dates back to the first coeducational institutions. Social conventions and the adverse public reaction to the idea of coeducation required these colleges to provide not only housing for women students, but also social supervision and chaperonage. The women who took on these duties had various titles and equally varied duties, but by 1910 the title of dean of women was gaining in popularity and certain functions had come to be the particular responsibility of these women. These responsibilities included health, housing, personal and academic advising, student recommendations, communication with parents, student self-help, social activities, and discipline. In some institutions, the deans also acted as vocational counselors and placement officers for women students. The stress given to a particular duty depended upon the need for that work in the particular institution and upon the predilection of the dean herself. Although diversity characterized the personnel programs established by the early deans of women, by 1918 these women were rapidly becoming necessary college personnel officers and their programs had assumed the broad general lines and responsibilities that were to be typical of college personnel work in later years.

Deans of men arrived on the college scene somewhat later than deans of women, but by 1900 Harvard College, the University of Illinois, and the University of Oregon had deans of men in fact, if not in title. Criticism of the colleges, rising enrollments, secularism, the elective system—all contributed to the development of the office. College presidents, pressed for time and harassed by the growing complexities of college administration, turned over some of their responsibilities for disciplining and advising students and for supervising student social life to a faculty member—usually one who seemed to be interested in matters of student welfare. This same pattern characterized the establishment of the office of dean of men in many institutions of higher education. The deans of men showed a strong interest in the

maintenance of academic standards and in the control of student social life. The deans of women, on the other hand, although interested in the intellectual life of their students, emphasized health, housing, and the development of social activities and student government. Despite all their later disclaimers, most deans of men seem to have been appointed primarily to act as disciplinarians.

Faculty members, as well as deans of men and women, also assumed personnel responsibilities during this pre-World War I period. At Stanford University, for example, the faculty conducted an elaborate survey of the vocational guidance of college students and made efforts to improve their own guidance activities. In 1908 Princeton University instituted a tutorial system in which the preceptor was to act as "the guide, philosopher and friend of the student." Other universities, such as Harvard and California, developed elaborate systems of faculty advisers, particularly for freshmen, but in some instances for all students. Interestingly, the members of the mathematics department of Indiana University were experimenting at this time with their own version of group guidance. In a 1912 survey, only 13 out of the 89 responding institutions had no formal arrangements for faculty advisory work.[3] While many of these programs concentrated upon educational and vocational guidance, they serve to show the active faculty interest in and concern about the current problems of college students.

[3] Arthur R. Mead, "How Our Colleges and Universities Maintain Personal Relations with the Individual Students: A Report of an Investigation under the Auspices of the Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association," *Journal of the Proceedings and Addresses of the National Education Association of the United States*, 1912, pp. 790-803.

World War I had a far-reaching effect upon the development of college personnel work. Wartime studies introduced and popularized the word "personnel" as well as some of the concepts embodied in that word. Wartime research gave great impetus to the development of standardized tests and to the use of tests for student selection, placement, and measurement of achievement. Military studies of the men inducted into the services as well as of those rejected focused attention upon the health and mental hygiene problems of young people and augmented the consideration given to the growing activities of such organizations as the National Committee for Mental Hygiene. Wartime activities also fostered the growth of some areas of vocational guidance, such as job specifications, occupational information, and job placement. This spate of research in fields allied to college personnel work had two effects upon the development of the movement. First, it directed attention to the problems of young people in the areas covered by the research activities and pointed up the need for more and better personnel work in the colleges. Second, it gave rise to the development of specialties within the broad field of personnel work. Experts in testing, in mental hygiene, and in vocational guidance came into prominence in the 1920's and began to enter the personnel field.

The advent of specialists produced some significant changes in college personnel work. Heretofore the deans had carried most of the responsibility for the work, but usually they were not trained to do the more technical testing, vocational guidance, or therapeutic mental hygiene. Hence specialists in these areas were added to college staffs, often as separate autonomous entities within the

administrative scheme. By the middle of the decade, some colleges and universities had organized these specialists into a single department called a Personnel Bureau (or some similar title). Such a bureau had a director who acted as an adviser to the deans, the administrators, and the faculty. Essentially, the personnel bureau was an administrative arrangement for organizing the specialists whose work was an outgrowth of the wartime research.

During the 1920's, personnel work experienced considerable growth and development. New programs began and older programs were expanded, but this physical development was not accompanied by a similar evolution of a philosophical rationale for the work. Although personnel workers discussed at length the roles of the dean of men, the dean of women, and the personnel director, they seldom made explicit statements about what personnel work was or what its aims were. In 1926, however, L. B. Hopkins published the results of a survey that apparently spurred college personnel workers to attempt to delineate the philosophy implied by their work. Hopkins defined personnel work as "work having to do specifically with the individual," and compiled a list of twenty areas of activity that he thought should be the jurisdiction of personnel workers. Hopkins studied fourteen colleges and attempted to evaluate their personnel programs in the areas he had specified.[4] His survey is important, not only for its evaluative approach but also for its definition of the areas of personnel activity. To a very great extent, Hopkins' method of defining personnel work by listing its areas of responsibility patterned all later attempts to define the work.

The depression of the 1930's had relatively little immediate effect upon college personnel work. Some programs may have been slightly curtailed and the expansion of others halted, but most personnel workers retained their jobs and continued their work. In fact the depression seems to have increased the need for personnel work and to have given it enhanced importance in the colleges and universities. Student enrollments continued to rise with only temporary setbacks during the worst years of the depression and the problems of heterogeneity of students increased with rising enrollments. Housing and financial aid for students became even more important than before and, with the advent of the National Youth Administration, personnel workers took on the responsibility for administering the aid offered to college students through this agency. Fundamentally, the depression re-emphasized the need for personnel work rather than limiting the programs and activities of its workers.

In any period of social and economic upheaval, people tend to re-examine and to reassess their social institutions, and the colleges were not exempt from this evaluation and criticism during the depression. Attempts to insure economical and efficient operation of the colleges produced changes in personnel organization as well as in college administrative patterns. Criticism of the colleges and the kinds of education they provided elicited not only defenses of collegiate education, but also a re-examination of the purposes of higher education. This consideration of the aims of higher education seems to have influenced personnel workers to continue the attempt be-

[4] "Personnel Procedures in Education, Observations and Conclusions Resulting from Visits to Fourteen Institutions of Higher Learning," *The Educational Record*, 7: Supplement No. 3, October 1926.

gun by Hopkins and others to establish a philosophical basis for college personnel work.

In 1932 a committee of the American College Personnel Association published a report on "College Personnel Principles and Functions." In this report, Robert C. Clothier and his committee defined college personnel work as assisting each individual student to develop "through his own efforts . . . in body, mind and character to the limit of his individual capacity for growth. . . ." The committee then described personnel work as consisting of the promotion of a point of view on the part of all college staff members "which is favorable to the consideration of the student as an individual" and the maintenance of "such services, outside the purely academic functions, as contribute to the individual student's success at college." The report then outlined the various services that the committee members considered essential.[8] The members of the Association enthusiastically accepted this report and it became for a time their credo, but it was not generally accepted by all college personnel workers.

The Clothier report was only the beginning of a spate of definitions and discussions of the meaning of personnel work, the services it should offer, and the duties of personnel workers. Various definitions appeared, but none seemed acceptable to a majority of college personnel workers. The most generally acceptable delineation of personnel work appeared in 1937 and, oddly enough, differed very little from the earlier Clothier report. This 1937 statement, *The Student Personnel Point of View*, was the report of a conference on personnel work sponsored by the American Council on Education. The Council published this report in inexpensive pamphlet form and gave it wide circulation, which may partially explain why it received greater acceptance than the Clothier report.

The Student Personnel Point of View eschewed the problem of defining college personnel work by describing the personnel point of view as a way of considering "the student as a whole" and of emphasizing his development "as a person rather than . . . his intellectual training alone." The functions that implemented this point of view then became the student personnel services, and the performance of these functions constituted student personnel work. Hence the conference members arrived at what has come to be the dogma of college personnel work by a route of circuitous definition and by relying heavily upon the earlier work of Hopkins, Clothier, and others.

The conference participants in their report specified the personnel services as pre-college guidance, selection and admissions, orientation, diagnostic service, educational guidance, cooperation with the families of students, social and personal guidance, vocational guidance, physical and mental health services, housing and food services, social and extra-curricular activities, religious activities, provision of information for use in improving instruction and in curriculum planning, financial aid and part-time employment, cumulative records, discipline, maintenance of student morale by evaluating and developing student mores, placement, articulation of college and vocational experience, providing information to students about opportunities and services open to them, research and evaluation of services. These services resembled closely those listed by Hopkins and Clothier and, in the 1949 revision of the pamphlet, underwent only minor

[8] *Personnel Journal*, 10:9-17 (No. 1), 1931-32.

changes and additions. Essentially, this pamphlet delineated a services approach to student personnel work—personnel workers would attempt to recognize the "whole student" by dealing separately with many aspects of his existence.

The publication of *The Student Personnel Point of View* marked the end of the period of fluid, individualistic development of college personnel programs. Since the appearance of the pamphlet, most college personnel programs have been organized or reorganized around the services approach to personnel work. This trend has insured the inclusion of many services that were not incorporated in some of the early programs, but has also tended to standardize college personnel programs without consideration being given to the particular institution, its size, and its educational aims. In a sense, the work of the 1937 conference defined the "empire" of personnel work and simultaneously circumscribed it. Despite the fact that personnel programs have grown tremendously since then and the number of personnel workers employed in them has multiplied many times, college personnel work figuratively stopped growing in 1937. Since then—despite a global war and countless research developments—there have been few substantial changes either in areas of personnel responsibility or in ways of thinking about personnel work.

Currently, some personnel workers are expressing considerable dissatisfaction with the services concept of their work. Some of them are criticizing the type of personnel work that partitions the student, while others are earnestly trying to implement the concept of personnel work that views the "whole person." Still others are discussing an integrated approach to personnel work that might make it more completely a part of the total educational process. Frequently, however, these new attempts are either too nebulous to permit adequate implementation or simply old ideas in modern guise. All too often the people who are trying to formulate new approaches are operating within services-oriented institutions and are unable to view the work functionally in other terms. These dissatisfactions and new attempts, however, comprise the bases of the modern issues in college personnel work.

High School Guidance. Although the guidance-personnel movement began earlier in colleges and universities, most modern studies ascribe the beginning of the movement to its high school origins and more specifically to the work of Frank Parsons in Boston in 1908. A specific beginning date for any movement is a historical convenience, but more often than not it is fallacious. Like college personnel work, high school guidance had a variety of beginnings, all reflecting the contemporary scene.

During the first decade of the new century, the swiftly changing social and economic scene presented secondary school educators with several immediate problems. Industrialization created an array of new types of jobs and, thereby, faced educators with the dual responsibility of preparing students for these jobs and helping them to find employment. Separate vocational and academic programs—often offered in different high schools—forced students to make early educational and vocational choices. At the same time, the new science of psychology suggested that systematic self-study and self-analysis might mitigate these problems, and educators took on the task of helping students to carry out such analyses. Business, industrial, and educational leaders were vitally in-

terested in all proposals that might ease the student's training for the world of work, but it was up to the educators to translate ideas into practice.

With these needs and interests predominant, it was only logical that the earliest forms of secondary-school guidance concentrated upon vocational advice and planning. In Brooklyn, for example, Eli Weaver began to offer his students help in finding summer jobs. In Grand Rapids, Michigan, Jesse Davis instituted a program in which teachers shaped their subject matter so that students might become familiar with the world of work and might absorb the values of democratic society. In Middletown, Connecticut, William Wheatley was working out plans for providing students with occupational information through their social studies classes and special courses in occupations. In Boston, a special School Committee put into effect Frank Parsons' proposal that vocational counsel might serve a dual purpose: assist the students in making wise vocational choices and help the educators in selecting for the overcrowded vocational high schools those students who could benefit most from such training. Many educators in many schools were experimenting with similar plans and techniques that combined to form the concept of vocational guidance.

Vocational guidance received its greatest impetus from the early experiments in the Boston schools. This work furnished the composite necessary for a striking beginning: a published statement of theory, a trial ground for that theory, strong civic support, and wide publicity. Rarely in educational history has a concept found such ready acceptance. In 1910, 45 large city school systems sent delegates to a meeting in Boston to find out about, and to compare notes on, vocational guidance. College educators such as Charles Eliot and George H. Mead lauded the idea; industrial and governmental leaders praised its purposes and methods; and by 1911 Harvard University was offering a special training course for these new vocational counselors, a practice rapidly picked up by universities as far afield as Minnesota and California.

Essentially, the concept of vocational guidance that so caught the public fancy was a simple one. Vocational guidance was and is a means of helping each student to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter and progress in it. Procedures were developed comprising a program of vocational guidance: tests of aptitudes, achievement, and interests; vocational counseling; the dissemination of occupational information; placement assistance; and follow-up studies. From its beginnings, vocational guidance in contrast with other forms of guidance and with the guidance–personnel movement as a whole could be easily understood and recognized.

Although in the early days of the guidance–personnel movement, a program of vocational guidance was "guidance" in secondary schools, another kind of guidance activity was in operation. In 1913 Ella Flagg Young had appointed deans of girls in the Chicago high schools "to organize the social life and to be a friend to every girl."[6] Not much is known about the work of these early deans, but the increase in the number of girls seeking secondary-school education obviously created a widespread need for such guidance workers. Before 1920 only the survey study done by Romiett Stevens attests to the growth of this type

[6] Mary Hooker Johnson, *The Dean in the High School, A Record of Experience and Experiment in Secondary Schools* (New York, Professional and Technical Press, 1919), p. 10.

of guidance: of 92 schools queried, 54 had the special office of adviser to girls. Although the advisers' titles varied, their duties included educational, social, and moral guidance, as well as advice about health and personal hygiene.

Despite the prevalence of this second type of secondary-school guidance, it received only rare mention and little publicity until the late 1920's. Yet evidence from the 1920 period indicates that more deans of girls—and also those totally unpublicized guidance workers, deans of boys—than vocational guidance counselors and directors were employed in the schools.[7] But publicity and public recognition tended then, as today, to identify high school guidance with educational–vocational guidance, which had clearly delineated aims and specified procedures.

The publication of the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* in 1918 shaped the course of secondary-school guidance and laid the groundwork for present troubling issues in the field. The statement of the *Cardinal Principles* is, on the one hand, one of the most influential and revolutionary documents in secondary-school education and, on the other hand, one of the most influential and paradoxical documents in secondary-school guidance. These principles reflect clearly the rapid changes that had taken place in the conception of the responsibilities of secondary education during the twenty-five year period between 1893 and 1918. In 1893 secondary-school educators were assigned the responsibility of helping students in their intellectual development through an academic curriculum; in 1918 these same educators were charged with helping students to become good citizens by developing in them ethical character, citizenship, the ability to make worthy use of leisure, vocational direction, worthy home membership, and good health practices, as well as a command of fundamental processes.

The Committee formulating the *Cardinal Principles* viewed guidance as operating only in the vocational area. In the separate report, *Vocational Guidance in Secondary Education*, the Committee clearly expressed dissatisfaction with existing programs of vocational guidance, but failed to recommend anything other than the established program of testing, vocational counseling, occupational information, placement, and follow-up. The Committee stated flatly, however, that the vocational counselor should not be simply a technician trained in the recommended procedures but, rather, a combination of psychologist, sociologist, and economist and "most of all, an educator in the best modern sense of the word"—a statement that implied dissatisfaction with the vocational guidance training that had developed.

Various guidance workers and administrators seeking support for their often conflicting aims could find it in the *Cardinal Principles*. Increasing numbers of guidance workers began to question the validity of limiting guidance activities to the educational and vocational areas. They believed that the areas of guidance responsibility should parallel those of education. Hence moral, civic, health, family, social, and even life became popular adjectives for guidance in addition to the older educational and vocational ones.

Other guidance workers, looking at the recommended program of guidance,

[7] D. H. Eikenberry, *Status of the High School Principal*, Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1925, No. 24, pp. 49-57; E. E. Windes, *Trends in the Development of Secondary Education*, Bulletin, 1927, No. 26, p. 18.

became staunch supporters of vocational guidance as the only valid area of activity. Not until 1930 did some of the strict proponents of vocational guidance admit publicly the validity of educational guidance as an adjunct to the strictly vocational form.

World War I served to emphasize the divisiveness that was rapidly appearing in the secondary-school guidance field. Interested in "getting the right man in the right job," government agencies stressed placement activities and all forms of vocational guidance. And yet, simultaneously, the influences that shaped the personnel programs in colleges were also reflected in the broader types of guidance activities in secondary schools.

As a result, during the decade of the 1920's secondary-school guidance programs proliferated. Some simply followed the outlined program of vocational guidance; some operated along broader lines with deans of boys and girls; some had deans within the schools and used vocational guidance and mental hygiene experts for referral; some included only placement services; others, only testing. Still other programs had only an already busy administrator who had been told that the guidance in the school was his responsibility. Yet all these were "guidance programs," united in title, but divided in aim, function, and responsibility.

The expansion of secondary-school guidance activity came to a sudden halt at the time of the depression. An immediate effect of the depression was severe curtailment of all school guidance activity, this retrenchment reaching its apogee during the years 1932 through 1934. In 1930, for example, the average expenditure per pupil in the public schools was $86.70; by 1932 this figure had dropped to $81.08; and by 1934, to $67.48. With this drop in financial support came sharp reductions in the teaching staff, the numbers and types of courses offered, and the length of the school term. In general, many of the cuts were made by removing from the school program the "fads and frills"—kindergartens; evening schools; health programs; classes in music, art, and physical education; and guidance programs. For example, the budget for vocational guidance in the Chicago school system in 1931 was $150,372; in 1932 no appropriation was made for vocational guidance. The following year the Chicago school system abolished the position of dean of girls. Retrenchment occurred especially in the supervisory and administrative ranks: in the 26 states reporting their figures the number of school supervisors and administrators dropped from 5,807 in 1930 to 3,683 in 1934. Supervisors of various pupil-personnel services, vocational guidance specialists, testing experts, and deans lost their jobs.

The long-range effect of the depression upon guidance activity was, first, retrenchment and then, rapid re-expansion. The effects of the depression reinforced the need for guidance work and, as the country began to recover its economic stability, guidance workers reappeared in the schools. World War II and its attendant educational problems reemphasized the importance of the work and, since 1945, guidance programs have become a regular part of the offering of many schools. Vocational guidance activities have received support from the state and federal governments and from private funds. Occupational studies have abounded, and, as in the early days of the guidance movement, a program of educational-vocational guidance has tended to be identified with secondary-school guidance.

At the same time, other types of guidance activity also received post-depression and postwar stimulus. Interest in the role that the teacher might play in the guidance program mounted and "homeroom guidance" became a popular concept. Some guidance workers began to promote a broader concept of their functions, stating that effective guidance work must cope with problems of social adjustment and leadership and must incorporate greater recognition and knowledge of each student as an individual. Increasingly, research studies tended to support the contentions of these guidance workers who conceived of their work as broad and inclusive.

The result of this varying support given to different views of guidance was that guidance activities returned to the schools in many of the same forms and with much the same divisiveness that they had exhibited before the depression retrenchment. Guidance workers, administrators, and educators apparently shunned opportunities to develop new concepts and to experiment with new activities. Hence the depression had a paradoxical effect upon guidance activity. In terms of numbers of programs and of guidance workers, it caused first retrenchment and then continuous reexpansion. In terms of concepts of guidance, the depression led simply to retrenchment, stronger than ever before, in the patterns of the past and to the development of further confusion in the mind of the public about the meaning of guidance, its scope, and its responsibilities.

The basic conflict about the scope of guidance has extended to the present day. With the rise of debate about the responsibilities of the schools, guidance activity has gained greater public interest and has been challenged with new responsibilities: eliminating juvenile delinquency, identifying the gifted, motivating able students to seek further education, extending guidance downward to the elementary school, and with—as in the past—attempting to individualize education at a time of mounting school enrollments. New issues and new areas of discussion have been added. Old paradoxes and issues have not been reconciled. New responsibilities raise new issues that simply emphasize the continuing need for clarification.

SUMMARY

Arising as a partial answer to social and economic changes, new school and college responsibilities, and revolutionary views of the individual and society, the guidance–personnel movement developed a many-faceted approach. Fundamentally, the many diverse factions within the movement were united by their basic aim of attempting to individualize education and divided by their individual attempts to implement this common intent. Modern issues in the guidance–personnel field grow out of this composite of unity and diversity.

From the vantage point of the present, contemporary guidance–personnel workers might too easily be lured into empty criticism of what has happened in the past and idle speculation about what might have been. Such criticism and speculation, however, would tend to obscure the fact that guidance–personnel workers have accomplished much and, within this field, have borne the primary responsibility for individualizing a vast and ever-growing educational system.

Understanding the development of guidance–personnel work and the background that spawned it is especially vital today in order that guidance–per-

sonnel workers may carry out a much more constructive process than mere criticism—analysis and evaluation of their field and their activities. Guidance–personnel work, like the educational institutions within which it operates, is at a transitional stage in which new directions can be charted, old differences can be analyzed and reconciled, and modern issues can be discussed freely and openly.

Too often in the past, the basic issues in guidance–personnel work have been ignored in a concentration on current needs, on refinement of established techniques, and on makeshift planning. Too often, decisions made in the past against a background of then-contemporary events have been perpetuated for reasons that are today no longer applicable or valid. Modern issues can be fully understood only against the background of their development and in the light of present-day events.

Analysis of issues does not resolve them; but without analysis no clear resolution of issues is possible. At times analysis will be disturbing. Occasionally it may even seem to be dangerous. But unresolved or unrecognized issues should also be disturbing and are certainly dangerous. One can remark about the guidance–personnel movement as did George Santayana about philosophy, "We may be frightened at first to learn on what thin ice we have been skating, . . . but we shall not be in worse plight for knowing it, only wiser to-day and perhaps safer to-morrow."

—REVIEWS

American College Life As Education in World Outlook, by Howard E. Wilson. Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1956. xii + 189 pp. $3.50.

The University, the Citizen, and World Affairs, by Cyril O. Houle and Charles A. Nelson. Washington, D. C., American Council on Education, 1956. xiii + 166 pp. $3.00.

In 1950 the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace began an analysis of American universities and world affairs. As the first part of the program, each of eight institutions of higher education conducted its own analysis of its activities and resources in world affairs. The results of this study were reported in 1951 in *Universities and World Affairs*, by Howard E. Wilson.

The success of the first phase of the program led to a series of thirteen regional conferences, sponsored by the Endowment, at which representatives from three hundred institutions of higher education met to discuss the possibilities of self-surveys. Nearly one hundred institutions, varying in size, geographical location, and function decided to undertake a self-analysis of their total activities and potential in terms of world affairs. Such an approach, while conscious of the specific role of college courses, also recognized the role of research enterprises, interchange of persons, informal cocurricular and extracurricular activities, and the role of the university in adult thinking.

Sixty institutions have completed their surveys. To gain a broader interpretation of the surveys a number of specialists were asked by the Endowment to prepare volumes on what appeared to be the most important topics. These volumes are being published by the American Council on Education under the title *Studies in Universities and World Affairs*. *American College Life As Education in World Outlook* and *The University, the Citizen, and World Affairs* are two volumes in the series.

American College Life As Education in World Outlook is an examination of the role of extracurricular and cocurricular activities in educating students emotionally and intellectually toward a better understanding of other cultures, world areas, and the relations among modern nations and cultures. The terms "world affairs" and "world outlook" are used in the broadest sense. In the Preface the author states, "Educating for world affairs includes the understanding and attitudes students acquire respecting other cultures or world areas, and it includes understanding and feeling about America's position in the international situation."

As this volume is concerned with the role of out-of-class, cocurricular or extracurricular activities, the author traces the changing concept of campus versus classroom in American higher education. Cotton Mather's "collegiate way of living" demanded the complete time of the student from the hour he arose in the morning until he went to bed at night. Under Mather's philosophy there was no such thing as extracurricular activities. All activities were considered part of the college training. In the nineteenth century the rapid transition and demand of American society and the influence of the German universities led to an emerging pattern far different from that of Cotton Mather. A sharp dichotomy began to appear between "campus life" and

college "classes." With such a separation came a division of faculty and students. Faculties were often prone to look upon nonclass activities as "side shows" or as means whereby students could release energy and tension. The high mortality rate of the accepted literary societies appeared to be further evidence that nonclass activities were frivolous and contributed little to the student's academic background. Following World War I a few colleges began to integrate the curriculum and the extracurricular program. Every effort was made by these few experimental colleges to establish the best possible conditions under which all phases of the college program could be used to develop the maximum intellectual and aesthetic ability of the student.

The thesis of the book is that only by fully integrating class and campus activities can maximum use be made of the many opportunities found in all colleges to increase the student's awareness and knowledge of world affairs. The thesis is borne out in a number of studies quoted in the book which show the wide variety of experiences felt by students to have been responsible for their concepts of world affairs. While specific college courses in world affairs were an important influence for those who had taken such courses, the many other activities found on most college campuses such as lectures, exhibits, and old-fashioned "bull sessions" with friends, and off-campus influences such as newspapers, newscasts, and magazines were found to have great influence on student opinion. It is on the basis of these surveys that the author suggests that all aspects and phases of the so-called "collegiate way of life" should be examined and used in planning the teaching of world affairs on campuses.

The aspects and phases of college life that can be used are well described throughout the book. In describing facilities for informal education the author starts with the actual physical structure of American college campuses. While most colleges cannot hope to equal the Cité Universitaire in Paris in terms of providing the ultimate in international character, all colleges have the ability to plan for developing the very best in emotional and aesthetic atmosphere for students. Of particular interest are the building donated by Amherst students to Doshisha University in Japan and the nationality rooms of the University of Pittsburgh. College unions, university religious centers, campus communication agencies, and assemblies are discussed in terms of their potential in a program of world affairs.

In describing the members of the college community the author suggests the use of what can be the most valuable resource of all. Despite the size of the college, some students can be found who have had experiences which would help in a program of world affairs. Few colleges have on their faculty members who have neither traveled nor been employed by governmental or intergovernmental agencies. One might well ask what use is made of the experience of returning veterans who have had foreign service.

There are few colleges that lack the facilities for developing an integrated program in world affairs, but too often these facilities are not coordinated to a total program.

As indicated by the author, the potential exists; the problem is one of finding the best techniques for organizing and directing the program. No formula for achieving an integrated program is given; it is the responsibility of each college to study its own possibilities and construct its own program.

The success of an integrated program will depend to a large extent on the willingness of the faculty and administration to institute such a program. The complaint that American students are not as politically sophisticated or as keenly interested in world affairs as European students is heard very often from college instructors. The approach suggested by the author is a positive one, but it suggests a reappraisal of the function of faculty and administration. It means a greater demand on the part of the faculty, for the success of the program will depend ultimately on the role of the pro-

fessor in the total college community. Such a role means a realistic approach to college responsibilities assigned to faculty by the administration.

American College Life As Education in World Outlook is a book that deserves serious consideration by college administrators and faculties, and one that can help colleges fulfill one of their most pressing responsibilities—the educating of students in world affairs.

There are few today who would not agree that it is imperative for all citizens to have a sound knowledge of the world. The rapid advance of the United States from a position of semi-isolationism to that of leadership in the free world has placed a greater demand on all adults to be well informed about international relations. As individual voters and as members of concerned groups, the citizens influence the direction of foreign policy. One might well assume that with the rapid expansion of mass communication the individual would be well aware of world affairs and intelligently oriented in international affairs. Unfortunately, as so many surveys have indicated, this is not true.

The University, the Citizen and World Affairs suggests the means by which the university can fulfill its responsibilities for adult education in international relations. While many examples are given of adult educational experiences on campuses and a chapter is devoted to the scope of the present services, the authors' main purpose is to examine the underlying principles of successful practices. By examining these principles they suggest the foundations on which can be built an adult university program in international relations.

The authors, in presenting an excellent analysis of the adult "public," have considered American adults under four headings. The first group and the largest are the inattentive or uninformed citizens. The second group are the informed or attentive citizens. The attentive citizen may not have broad knowledge, but he is interested and follows world affairs carefully. The third group, the actively concerned citizens, are identified as people who consider international relations an avocation. The final group are people who are actively engaged in some area of international relations.

Using these four groups as a background, the volume proceeds to describe the techniques by which the groups can be served by the university. In identifying the four major groups and discussing the principles a university can apply in building a successful program, Houle and Nelson have explored and developed principles that are so often ignored in adult education. Too often, adult education is considered as a whole without recognition of the many and diversified groups it serves.

Throughout the book the authors stress that imaginative programs must be developed for adults. The examples cited are those which have initiated new approaches. These new approaches are particularly important in adult education as the student is not, like the typical college student, enrolled for a specific time. He may take a few courses, attend a few lectures, or return to the university for a number of years.

In addition to an imaginative program the university should offer an articulated program. Recognition of the various "publics" means that programs must be organized for various levels and should follow a logical sequence. This is difficult in view of the variety of interests of adults and the fact that the adult is free to select only those courses in which he is interested. However, the authors have shown that this approach is possible.

While the book is concerned with world affairs, the principles stated apply to any adult education program. It is an excellent statement and a valuable contribution to adult education, although there are statements which will undoubtedly lead to controversy. The authors state that "the university should emphasize educational activities which call for the use of the higher powers of the mind." (p. 55) In speaking of the "higher powers of the mind" are the

authors reflecting a conception of faculty psychology or do they actually mean "critical skills"? In view of current theories of learning one must assume that they mean the latter.

In stating the need for adult study of international relations, the authors wrote, "First, full comprehension of international relations requires an adult mind and adult experiences; those who study the subject in youth can lay only a groundwork for more precise and discerning study later on." (p. 15) This is an exceedingly broad statement and undoubtedly will raise many questions. For example, does being an adult mean that the individual will automatically have had those experiences which will help him understand world affairs? Do the authors mean that an adult mind is a mature mind? If adult mind is interpreted as a mature mind, one could seriously question whether chronological age is a reputable criterion. If one accepts the above quotation as true, then what of the adults (and they make up the majority of the population) who have not had the groundwork. This group is described very well by the authors, but it would appear that in this statement they have attempted to polarize college students in one cluster and adult education students in another. Each group has its strengths and its weaknesses. This fact has been recognized in the whole philosophy of the book.

DAVID G. SCANLON
Newark (N. J.) State Teachers College

The Year Book of Education, 1956, edited by Robert King Hall and J. A. Lauwerys. New York, World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, 1956. xii + 595 pp. $8.

For participants in the international conference on Comparative Education at the Unesco Institute in Hamburg in 1955, a dominating memory is of the incisive vigor and breath-taking bigness of concept put into discussions by Professors J. A. Lauwerys and Robert King Hall. In their work as editors of the Year Book on Education and Economics the same qualities are apparent.

Using the magnet of "Economics," the joint editors draw together an extraordinary assemblage of historical, geographical, and sociological material, as a dozen titles demonstrate: Apathy: An Example from the British Cameroons: Provision for Education in the Free Cities of Italy; The Dissolution of the Society of Jesus in the Eighteenth Century and its Financial Consequences; Secondary Education for All: New Zealand—Maoris; Economic Aspects of the Reform of Indian Education; Fiscal Management in an English Local Education Authority; the Situation in the Rural United States; Teachers in Norway; German Education and Economy in the Nineteenth Century; Education and National Efficiency: The United States; The Effects of an External Stimulus upon Education in Morocco; Economics and Education in Latin America.

To systematize the volume's 57 papers the editors have grouped them in four sections entitled *The Demand for Education*, *The Acquisition and Distribution of Resources*, *Problems of Management*, and *Socio-Economic Consequences and Determinants*. In addition to their general Introduction discussing five types of attitude to the support of education, they have written commentaries linking the sections—a fact which could be overlooked from the pagination of the Contents—in which they pick out the significances of the individual studies. Terse judgments challenge us continually, for example,

> One of the tragic mistakes which most underdeveloped nations make is in the belief that because they can learn successfully to operate an existing industry, they have in fact achieved the ability to compete in that industry. Nothing could be further from the truth. . . .

And again

> Fundamentally the problem of distribution of resources in any economy is one of reconciling competing demands. Education is competing with industry and commerce for real resources.

One aspect of this Year Book would have quickened the pulse of that far-sighted English pioneer of comparative education, Sir Michael Sadler. When he delivered the three Sachs lectures on *The Outlook in Secondary Education* before the faculty and students of Teachers College in 1930, he declared, "At this juncture, I for one, would lay stress not on the selective function of secondary education but on its assimilative power." It is clear from the English contributions to the 1956 Year Book that a quarter of a century later a younger generation is struggling to bring home the meaning of this to a society where selection at eleven plus prevails. Mr. Brian Holmes, assistant editor of the Year Book, analyzes brilliantly "The Reform of English Education under the 1944 Education Act." Mrs. Jean Floud and Dr. A. H. Halsey reinforce Mr. Holmes's diagnosis from a sociological viewpoint. In a closely argued paper on "Education and Occupation: English Secondary Schools and the Supply of Labour" they point out:

> The traditionally middle-class schools are evidently failing to assimilate large numbers of the able working-class children who win their way into them.

And later they make a suggestion which may be surprisingly familiar to American readers:

> The question is whether a national guidance policy, aimed at stimulating the ambitions of the unselected school population and tackling the problem of social assimilation which underlies the wastage of able working-class children from grammar schools, does not demand the appointment of counsellors or guidance officers to the staffs of all secondary schools. . . .

Implicit in these English studies is the basic question posed by Professors Lauwerys and Hall: How much education can a society afford? "To which," they suggest, "Americans would probably reply that the real question was rather whether any society could 'afford' to do without education. This is correct for rich and complex societies." Mr. Holmes, speaking from the context of English society, concludes "Eventually, the public will pay only for what it wants." Perhaps this is the point at which a reviewer should discreetly bury himself in the four immensely informative chapters on "Paying Teachers," confident in the conviction that the volume on *Education and Economics* will make a singularly useful reference book for administrators' offices as well as for departmental libraries.

J. H. Higginson
University of Leeds

Freedom, Education, and the Fund, by Robert M. Hutchins. New York, Meridian Books, 1956, paper, $1.25.

This slim little volume is the creed of a fighter. In twelve addresses, with introductory comments, on the general subjects of freedom, education and the Fund (for the Republic), Robert Maynard Hutchins the warrior, the iconoclast, the gadfly, the reformer, and the viewer with alarm all emerge in bewildering, but fascinating profusion of roles. He plays them all well. For, in addition to courage, there are, in this collection of his public speeches, wisdom and experience derived from a long (if highly unconventional) life of battling for causes.

It goes without saying that a temperament like Hutchins' is least likely to achieve the very thing which it hopes most to achieve, namely, agreement with the conclusions derived from basic premises. The academic educationalist—whether historian, philosopher, or student of method or administration—is likely to find himself torn in reading these pages; certainly he will find himself frustrated and angry. Agree with Hutchins' Bill-of-Rights democratic principles and premises he is forced to do, but with his conclusions, especially about modern educational theory and practices he cannot, even though he might like to.

He is, therefore, likely to look for the flaws in these speeches and to exaggerate

them, despite the fact that they were delivered over a ten-year period from 1946 to 1956. Among these the most obvious, perhaps, is Hutchins' consistent failure to take into account both historical cause and effect and the raw reality of our political and social system at the local level, and this is true whether he is speaking about education, public attitudes toward the Fund (as represented by Congressional Committees), or the popular conception of civil rights. So far as public education is concerned, however, it is probably safe to say that without historical perspective, no critic of education can be intelligible, at least not to those working in the field.

Hutchins is, in addition, most inconsistent in his discussion of reformers. He criticizes them for their myopia and their lack of realism and even suggests what are undoubtedly some of the basic weaknesses in the spirit of reform itself—especially the unwillingness of most reformers to recognize the tension between the two principal agencies of reform, revolution and education. But at the same time he admits quite candidly that he himself is a reformer, and it seems only logical to point out that one cannot attack reformers on the ground that they are being unrealistic about what reform can accomplish in a book which is dedicated passionately to the need for reform in everything.

Furthermore he has the weakness of so many gadfly critics—Philip Wylie, Bernard Iddings Bell, and Gordon Keith Chalmers, for example—of projecting present tense into future and in apocalyptic fashion predicting the downfall of civilization because no one recognizes, understands, or is willing to do much about the flaws he sees in the world around him. One is tempted to enter a caveat here: things can hardly be as bad as he paints them either in education or in anything else.

Of course this state of mind really indicates what may be a basic characteristic of the true fighting reformer—though Hutchins does not seem to notice this in an otherwise sophisticated approach to himself and his subject. It is that he is primarily interested in remaking the world according to his own personal blueprint of what is right and good. It is clear that he is driven by that consuming passion, so familiar in our history, to attack great obstacles head on, almost, one feels at times, for the sheer joy of battle rather than for the ends which he sets before us. Such a mind cannot put the contemporary world in perspective, attempting to see good as well as bad, positive as well as negative elements. I suspect that Hutchins would be bored by a world without problems. He might even find himself forced to create them.

The fact remains, however, that these speeches reflect a man of stature, rare courage, and deep conviction and faith in those values which we must share with him regardless of disagreement on other issues. The result is a book with the word "education" in the title which is stirring, even exciting—and this is a rare phenomenon in the educational literature. It is impossible to read his two speeches (in 1948 and in 1955) on "Freedom and Responsibility of the Press," delivered in the very teeth of the lion itself to the National Conference of Editorial Writers, without a stirring of the pulse. One can forgive much in a man who can, with justice, tell so powerful a force in American public opinion that they have been guilty of distortion, in some cases of dishonesty, and that they are not facing up to their responsibility to the American public. This sort of thing takes genuine courage, not mere fanaticism, especially when it is done with humor and insight.

Hutchins' speeches on education are, of course, his own summation and personal reinterpretation of the repeated criticisms of recent years, including his own. They are not therefore new or original. Yet they have their special value, for this is not merely one more "tradionalist" and "conservative" or "essentialist"—to employ the prevailing cant—adding his bit to the outcry. It is more likely that his points of attack in these speeches, especially on the questions of "adjustment," on social reform,

on sentimentality in the curriculum, and by no means least, democracy in education, represent what may become the foci of continuing and more devastating attacks in the future and not only from Hutchins. They are worth reading, therefore, not only for their fresh and vigorous style, but for what they may well portend.

For the educator, especially in the schools and faculties of education, it is worth keeping in mind that this little volume is about freedom and human dignity, and that Hutchins' greatest merit is his consistency. He is as scathing in his attacks on higher education as in those on educational ideas and practices in the schools. Yet he speaks from the groves of academe. How many of us in our educational ivory towers can claim that we are equally fearless, equally impartial in attacking the flaws and weaknesses—which most certainly exist—in our own profession?

N. Deming Hoyt
Northampton, Mass.

Manpower and Education, by the Educational Policies Commission. Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1956. 128 pp. $1.25.

This book presents an analysis of our country's need for and supply of manpower, with the implications for education at every level—elementary, secondary, and higher.

It was prepared by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators. The Commission is made up of thoughtful, experienced educators who represent all levels of schools and different geographical areas. This report is one of a series that was begun in 1937 with the publication of *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*. Each volume in the series was designed to analyze a major problem or aspect of education and to propose policies and standards for the consideration of professional educators and of citizens generally who are concerned with the direction of education. No such voluntary commission has any power to determine educational policies; only boards of education, state legislatures, and boards of control of higher institutions have legal power to determine policies. The Educational Policies Commission, however, has served a most useful purpose by formulating and bringing to the attention of interested persons clear statements of salient issues in education and suggestions for meeting these issues in accordance with policies consistent with good education in a democratic society.

The present volume well illustrates the value of the Commission's service to American education. Manpower needs have been the subject of numerous studies, especially during and since World War II, by governmental, scientific, cultural, and industrial groups. Unfortunately, little from these studies permeated the educational literature read by most school people until the appearance of this compact report by the Educational Policies Commission.

The volume has three parts: Salient Features of the Manpower Problem in the United States; The Relation of Certain Value Criteria to the Manpower Problem; and Implications for American Schools and Colleges.

The current problem stems from two major factors—changes in the composition of the population and technological changes now going on in industry and commerce.

The effects of changes in immigration policies and in birth rate are noted. After a drop in the rate of growth in population to its lowest point (7.3 per cent) in the decade from 1930 to 1940, the rate has turned upward to a marked degree. Because of the lengthening of the life span and the high birth rate of recent years, we now must expect in the next two decades a larger proportion at each end of the life scale and a smaller proportion in the age group in the middle. The percentage between twenty and sixty-four years of age, usually considered the most productive years, will drop to 52 per cent by 1970.

Thus, at a time of growing demand for manpower, the reservoir is becoming relatively smaller.

National security appears likely to continue to require a much larger number of men than formerly was necessary in this country in peacetime. This is true both in the armed services and in the industrial concerns that make the materiel for the services. Technological development calls for an ever-growing manpower, and at the same time reduces the effective years of service by requiring more years of preparation.

Manpower shortages appear to be most severe in scientific research, engineering and technology, health services, executive and supervisory fields, education, and in the semiprofessions and the technical occupations. Significantly enough, these are all fields that call for more than the minimum of education. Even though the average level of education has been increasing for decades and the number of college graduates has grown very rapidly, the supply does not yet meet the demand.

The report gives attention to what it calls the under-used potentials. Here are listed women (although a caution is sounded as to the possible harm from having a larger proportion of women leave the home for outside employment), minority groups, the older population, and the undereducated, by which is meant those who have not attained the educational level warranted by their potentialities.

In its discussion of values, the Commission warns against planning the uses of manpower solely in terms of manpower demands as contrasted with needs. Industry and commerce have the financial ability to back up their demands for trained men. Religion, culture, and the arts likewise need qualified manpower but often lack the funds to express that need in terms of demand. It is up to society in general and to educational institutions in particular to insure a balancing of needs and demands in relation to a broad perspective of the general welfare.

The Commission sees the implications of the manpower situation for education as an increased demand for more and better schooling for more of our young people, a strengthened program of guidance and personnel services, a new attention to the gifted, and steps to obtain enough qualified teachers.

The report concludes with the following recommendations:

1. Continued general upgrading of the entire labor force.

2. Concern for careers in education. This means both that general education needs to take increased account of career preparation, and that professional and vocational education needs to give adequate attention to developing personal qualities and abilities that insure capacity for continued growth and adjustment.

3. Development of new and improved post-high school programs, especially for the semiprofessions and the technical occupations.

4. Improved programs of guidance that are rooted in understanding of the manpower situation.

5. Education of the gifted to the highest level of their capacities.

6. Recruitment and retention of an adequate supply of well-qualified teachers at all levels from elementary school through college.

Manpower and Education makes available to educators and laymen concerned with education the major facts about the manpower situation, together with some thoughts about what schools and colleges can and should do. This reviewer deems it well worth reading and pondering. Our American educational system is the chief means with which society can meet the situation.

PAUL T. RANKIN
Detroit Public Schools

Education as a Profession, by Myron Hall Lieberman. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956. 540 pp. $6.

Despite unending public forums, education probably leads the professions in the number and kind of professional problems that are discussed chiefly in back rooms. Lieberman has written a comprehensive study of education as a profession, and embedded in it lies his substantial contribution: a superb analysis of crucial issues in public school teaching which seldom see the daylight of informed public discussion. Beginning with chapters on the nature and significance of the professions, and the problem of professional function in education, he considers the problems of authority, autonomy, certification, and accreditation, and goes on to examine the characteristics of teachers, their economic and occupational status, their ethics, their associations, and their unions.

His major thesis is that the further professionalization of education would be beneficial both to society and to educators. The faults of the book lie in its omissions, as Lieberman himself acknowledges. What is written about, however, is handled in a manner that is sometimes exciting, always intellectually impressive, and with insight that will add to any man's ability to go to the heart of issues in education.

The limitations of space that can plague the author of a book are somewhat compounded for the book reviewer. While it is necessary to excerpt for this review some of Lieberman's more interesting and provocative statements, it seems almost unfair to do so without including his preambles of cogent argument. But excerpt and comment it is, and the reader will have to go to the book itself for the full discussion.

"Educators," says Lieberman, "have gone a long way toward rationalizing their lack of definite, defensible functions by arguing that a situation in which thousands of local communities define the functions of education differently is really a virtue." He holds that disagreement over function is attributable chiefly to the disagreement on the prior question of *who* should determine the functions of education. In this connection he unabashedly holds to the view that professionalization of education remains an impossible task, while the local community is held to be the source of moral authority and has the right to determine the functions of education. He points out: "The continued delegation of professional decisions to lay bodies, not only without protest, but even with the enthusiastic approval of educators, has created the impression among laymen that they ought to make decisions which in reality should be made by educators *if the latter are a professional group.*" Lieberman then argues: "If the teacher's ultimate moral obligation lies elsewhere, then the next step is to devise ways and means of protecting teachers who do not conform to the mandate of their local community." As for the proper source of moral authority for the teacher, he holds that it is *not* the school board through its agent the superintendent, since the very essence of a profession is a high degree of personal responsibility. If not the local community or the school board, what, then, is the proper source of moral authority for the teacher? Lieberman's answer: the democratic ideals of the national community.

Teachers, he adds, should look carefully at current theories of school administration which delegate to the superintendent the major responsibilities for the entire school program. "To the extent that teachers are subject to the orders of an administrator whom they have not chosen, who is not responsible to them, and over whom they have no control, the teachers have the status of hired rather than professional workers." As Lieberman sees it, the crux of the matter is whether the public is employing a relatively skilled worker whose only authority is to do as he is told by his administrative superiors, or is hiring a professional worker who is paid to exercise independent skill and judgment.

Turning to problems of certification and accreditation, Lieberman points out that the

optimistic predictions about the professionalization of teaching err grievously in failing to take into account the fact that it is primarily the amount of training relative to other occupations and not the absolute amount of training in terms of years that determines the status of an occupation. It is probable, he says, that by the time all teachers have four years of higher education, they will have lost ground in their efforts to professionalize education. He points out: "It is unrealistic to ask or expect the American people to regard teaching as a profession as long as teachers themselves acquiesce in certification requirements which are so little above lay levels of education and training." Again Lieberman returns to reproach teachers for their indifference to their own problems of professionalization, commenting that their indifference to accreditation is "tantamount to indifference to both the quality and quantity of new teachers." He unhesitatingly adds, however, that professional practitioners "are more apt to support high standards of accreditation than are the professional schools, which often need the additional income from higher enrollments. . . . Domination of accreditation by teacher training institutions does not seem very promising. It is up to the classroom teachers themselves to get the job done." Just how optimistic Lieberman is regarding the achievement of this goal is not clear.

Inevitably he has some unkind words for teacher-education institutions. He cannot see, for example, how a professional school which is not sure of the function or scope of authority of its graduates may be in a position to provide a program of professional training. Commenting on the extensive variations in professional and nonprofessional portions of teacher education curricula, he sees grounds for questioning whether in fact there is "a common body of knowledge, skills, and techniques in the teaching profession." More to the point is his realization that teaching requires a type of training far beyond that which is usually given in teacher-education programs.

As for teacher organization, Lieberman is again worth quoting at length: "The factor which basically determines whether an individual will conduct himself professionally is whether or not the occupation is organized to insure a high level of service regardless of the individual motivations for entering the profession or for rendering professional services in specific situations. . . . The overemphasis on individual motivations instead of professional organization and discipline has given teachers a feeling of moral superiority which they do not deserve. At the same time this exaggerated emphasis has deflected attention from the urgent task of organizing education to insure a professional level of service from all teachers."

He points out in well-developed argument that the preponderance of women teachers "must be regarded as one of the two or three most important obstacles to the professionalization of education." Lieberman believes that as long as teachers are so highly vulnerable to competition from inadequately prepared personnel drawn from a reservoir of temporarily certificated women, it will be practically impossible to professionalize education. He points out that professional organization of teachers founders annually on the vast turnover of women in the profession. Lieberman, however, fails to answer the question as to just what can be done to improve this situation.

The chapter on the economic status of teachers merits both praise and critical comment. He introduces into the problem of teachers' salaries for the first time the questions of whether compensation should be on the basis of "services rendered" or "services received," and whether professionalism requires teachers to work for low salaries if the community is poor. His arguments are astute and invigorating. On the other hand, he omits discussion of the key role of salaries in promoting professional in-service growth; he deals little with the general objectives of salary policy; he doesn't follow a consistent line of thought with respect to merit rating, pointing out as he does so

convincingly what appear to be insuperable obstacles and then ending the discussion by concluding that merit rating is essential. He discusses the value of salary heights in spurring recruitment and performance, but fails to make any positive suggestions for implementing so difficult a program. He points out that veteran teachers are not getting proportionate increases in salary compared with younger teachers, but fails to note that this is the case in virtually all the salaried professions today. Elsewhere in the book, but related to teacher economics, Lieberman too quickly dismisses the issue of the proper share of education in the rapidly expanding gross national product and the implications for education of the expenditure pattern—largely for unnecessaries—in this country.

Most of Lieberman's chapters are worth reading in detail. He is neither omniscient nor infallible, but he brings to the problems of education the kind of analysis that has long been sadly lacking. The book is not only provocative, it is constructive and eminently valuable, but its value lies in being read in full, not in being excerpted and commented upon.

Willard S. Elsbree
David Pollen
Teachers College, Columbia

Music in Education; International Conference on the Role and Place of Music in the Education of Youth and Adults, Brussels, 29 June to 9 July 1953. Paris, UNESCO (Distributed in the United States by Columbia University Press, New York City), 1955. 335pp., paper, $2.50, 13/6, 650 fr.; cloth, $3.00.

Music in Education is a collection of reports from the last of a series of international meetings sponsored by UNESCO dealing with the role of the arts in education and in the development of the individual. After planning by a preparatory commission, three hundred and fourteen people from thirty-nine countries met in Brussels to participate in the conference.

One of the primary results of the meeting "was to give as broad a picture as possible of the state of music education throughout the world." Its principal objectives were "to discover problems common to teachers, to emphasize the essential requirements of music teaching and to advocate specific solutions for most of the problems raised."

These objectives are reflected in the contents of the book, which is divided into six sections: General Exposés (philosophic, aesthetic, and historical backgrounds), Music Education in the Curriculum, Music Education in Society, Methods and Aids in Music Education, The Training of the Teacher, and Contribution of the Professional to Music Education. Four appendixes present the report of the Rapporteur-general, resolutions and recommendations, a proposal to found an International Society for Music Education, and a list of participants.

The recommendations of the Conference were inevitably broad and general in nature, since they represented many conflicting points of view. All agreed on the importance of music for people of all ages in all countries, but presumably the application of this premise required individual interpretation by each delegate for his own country. The social and cultural importance of music was stressed, including that of comparison of the music education of various countries. The recommendations for primary and secondary schools stressed "musical values of an ever higher standard." On the university level, musicology and history of music were emphasized. As would be expected, community music and media of mass communication were strongly supported.

However, when these and many other recommendations are checked against the stated objectives of the conference some gaps are apparent. For example, one looks in vain for a unified discussion of "the prob-

lems common to teachers," to which an entire section might well have been devoted. Neither is there adequate discussion on the professional training of musicians, which is certainly a part of music education in the broad sense. In one of the American contributions the perennial question of the value of classroom teacher versus the music specialist is raised to the detriment of the latter, which certainly does not reflect the general opinion of music educators in this country. But these are all relatively minor points which only serve to emphasize outstanding achievements of the conference. As in the case of our own White House Conference on Education, perhaps the most important results of the Brussels meeting were to emphasize the importance of music education and of professional *esprit de corps* throughout the world.

The book abounds in stimulating and provocative views of music educators representing many countries and all levels of education. Only three articles were contributed by American citizens, one of whom was Professor Harry Wilson, who closed his article on "The Training of Teachers for Music in the Rural Schools of the U. S. A." by saying: "If the courses [for rural and classroom teachers] are set up to make them realize the joy of participating in various musical activities for their immediate satisfaction [and] this attitude can be carried into schoolrooms, then music will contribute to fulfilling the educational goals of our rural schools, namely, happy, suitable and useful citizens for a democracy."

Howard A. Murphy
Teachers College, Columbia

Books Received for Review

Bernard, Harold W., *Adolescent Development in American Culture*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y., World Book Co., 1957.

———, *Toward Better Personal Adjustment*. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957. $5.50.

Bruce and Holden, *The Teacher's Personal Development*. New York, Henry Holt & Co., 1957. vi + 346pp. $4.25.

Counts, George S., *The Challenge of Soviet Education*. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957. $6.00.

Folk Dance Guide, Paul Schwartz, Editor and Publisher. New York, 93 Fourth Ave. 1957. 26pp.

Havighurst and Neugarten, *Society and Education*. New York, Allyn and Bacon, 1957. xv + 465pp. $5.75.

Hicks, William V. and Jameson, Marshall, C., *The Elementary School Principal at Work*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J., Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957. $4.50.

Krug, Edward A., *Curriculum Planning*, Revised Edition. New York, Harper & Bros., 1957. xiv + 336pp. $4.00.

McCarthy, Raymond G., *Teen-Agers and Alcohol: A Handbook for the Educator*. New Haven, Publications Division, Yale Center of Alcohol Studies, 52 Hillhouse Avenue, 1956. x + 188pp. $4.00.

Maier, Solem, and Maier, *Supervisory and Executive Development*. New York, John Wiley & Sons, 1957. xi + 330pp. $6.50.

Martin, William Oliver, *The Order and Integration of Knowledge*. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press, 1957. $6.50.

The Rockefeller Foundation Annual Report, 1955.

Smith, Rolland and Ulrich, James F., *Solid Geometry*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.

Smith, Wilson, *Professors and Public Ethics*. Ithaca, Cornell University Press, 1956. vii + 244pp. $4.00.

Wiggins, Sam P., *The Student Teacher in Action*. New York, Allyn and Bacon, 1957. xii + 217pp. $2.95.

You will find these new texts exceptionally able in helping you train tomorrow's educators

• in basic principles

Secondary Education for American Democracy REVISED

by R. S. Gilchrist, W. H. Dutton, & W. L. Wrinkle

This complete revision of the well known text by Wrinkle and Gilchrist is an eminently pithy, down-to-earth survey of all the major and basic aspects of modern education by men whose experience includes teaching and administrative work at all levels from a two-teacher school to large city superintendency. (April)

• in methods

Teaching Science in the Secondary School

by R. Will Burnett

The author of the highly praised *Teaching Science in the Elementary School* presents here a comprehensive, up-to-date text on the high school level, full of practical suggestions for the classroom teacher as well as helpful guidance on the fundamental goals of modern science teaching. (April)

• in administration

American High School Administration REVISED

by Will French, J. D. Hull & B. L. Dodds

The new edition of the text long considered "among the very few outstanding books in the field" incorporates the dynamic changes of recent years, with special attention to ways and means of developing each individual student to his full capacities. $6.00

Write for examination copies

Rinehart & COMPANY, INC. 232 MADISON AVE., NEW YORK 16

POETRY And Its ENJOYMENT

By THOMAS H. BRIGGS

THIS new book presents a novel definition of art which should be helpful to all who have been puzzled by the conflict of their judgments with those of the experts. Though the definition is simple, it has many practical implications which are copiously illustrated, not only with poetry but also with references to music and pictorial art.

Poetry and Its Enjoyment gives a sound basis for appreciation of the several arts. While not intended to be a school text, the book is so lucid and interesting in exposition that even young people can read it with pleasure and benefit. It will prove a valuable addition to school and public libraries, and many readers will wish to have it on their own shelves for reference and for the pleasure of rereading the stimulating text and well-chosen illustrations.

336 pages $4.00

BUREAU OF PUBLICATIONS

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York

Dance in Psychotherapy

ELIZABETH ROSEN

This absorbing account of a pioneering attempt to use dance as therapy in the treatment of the mentally ill should arouse considerable interest among hospital administrators and clinicians throughout the country. The author reviews the history and rationale of the use of art, athletics, and other activities in mental therapy and reports on the comparatively little work that has been done with dance in this field, relating it to the adjunctive therapies and pointing out its aims and techniques. Dr. Rosen then gives a detailed account of dance programs she administered in two mental hospitals, recording the various reactions of the patients to the activity, to the leader, and to one another as a group.

180 pages $4.50

Teachers College Studies in Education

BUREAU OF PUBLICATIONS

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York 27

A NEW BASIS OF SUPPORT FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

THAD L. HUNGATE

CONTROLLER, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA

The author sets up objective measures of *actual* support and *ability to finance* higher education in the states—measures which enable the reader to:

.....see clearly the level of institutional current support for higher education of youth in the states.
.....compare state patterns of support sources.
.....contrast the effort exerted in the various states to support higher education for youth.
.....see bases for federal aid to equalize opportunities.

Part I of the study presents the background of the problem, a broad overview of current practice, a summary and interpretation of the issues emerging from the analysis, and proposals for action. Part II sets forth in text, summarizing tables, and charts the statistics on effort and support by states. In the Appendices are twelve master tables upon which the presentation of Part II rests.

Paper bound $1.75

BUREAU OF PUBLICATIONS

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York 27